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Association Notes and Editorial Comment

NOT FOR COLLEGE

ELSEWHERE IN THIS ISSUE extensive attention is given to the nature and needs of the *nonacademic* pupil—a term that is gaining educational usage. For years this type of fellow has been known as the non-college-preparatory pupil, a rather loose term which, easily translated, meant, among other things, a pupil not interested in meeting the requirements of the college preparatory curriculum; or, perhaps, not so much disinterested as unable to conquer such subjects. But there is a different “feel” about *nonacademic*: it seems sharper, more incisive with educational meaning, whether it connote either or both of the foregoing situations.

We believe that the readers of this issue of THE QUARTERLY will sense this distinction in “Better Education for Nonacademic Pupils,” a special report prepared by Kenneth N. Nickel for a committee of the Commission on Research and Service, and in Floyd L. Simmons’ report of the panel discussion, “How can the high school meet its responsibilities to non-academic students?” which was held by the same Commission last year.

If one had the voice of Paul Bunyan he could stand on the highest mountain and shout to the whole populace the educational meaning which both the committee and the panel put into *nonacademic*. Then would any decrier of the public schools still hold that what may be best for the *academic* is also best for the *nonacademic* and therefore for all the children of all the people? One can’t help wondering what

those who write for the slick magazines or who produce books for income or who employ other media to publicize ready answers to the basic educational riddle would do if they really had to face up to the day-by-day responsibilities of a public school.

HARLAN C. KOCH

DEATH CLAIMS TWO STATE CHAIRMEN

SINCE THE APPEARANCE of the January number of this publication—within weeks of each other—two chairmen of state committees of the Commission on Secondary Schools have died: R. M. Garrison, of Ohio, and W. Marvin Kemp, of South Dakota, the former after an extended illness and the latter most unexpectedly. Mr. Garrison was the Director of the Division of Elementary and Secondary Education and Mr. Kemp, the State Supervisor of Guidance Services, in their respective states. They had served as chairmen for approximately the same length of time, Mr. Kemp since 1949 and Mr. Garrison since 1950. These diligent officers will be sorely missed in their respective states and in the work of the Commission on Secondary Schools.

ERRATUM

REGRETTABLY, as co-author of “Probation, Suspension, and Related Problems” which was printed on pages 249-55 of the January number, Mr. Emil A. Holz’s name appeared as Emil A. Holtz. The editor deplores this typographical viola-

tion and hopes that every reader of THE QUARTERLY will see this correction.

FRATERNAL DELEGATES REPORT THEIR VISITS TO OTHER ASSOCIATIONS

FOR MANY YEARS representatives of the regional associations have been exchanging official visits of fraternal delegates to their respective annual meetings. This custom is richly rewarding, for by no other means could such intimate insights into the character of these regional enterprises be gained. Over the years the benefits have been cumulative in the councils of the North Central Association and, it is hoped, in the deliberations of the other associations as well. Here each of the North Central representatives reports briefly to the readers of THE QUARTERLY: Blair Stewart who visited the New England Association; J. Fred Murphy, the Middle States; Elmer Ellis, the Southern; Carl G. F. Franzen, the Northwest; and Lowell B. Fisher, the Western.

NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION

Blair Stewart

AS I AWOKE on the first morning of my visit to the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the first thing I noted was the fact that it gets light earlier in New England than it does in Ohio. This fact seemed to me symbolic. In an educational sense also, the light came earlier to New England than to the territory now included in the North Central Association. Many of the institutions in our organization were founded by persons who came out of New England, and a large number of our faculty members received at least a part of their education there.

I discovered immediately that the long tradition of educational enlightenment had bred no attitude of superiority, and that there was no evidence of the reputed austerity of the New Englander. The careful planning for the meetings of the Association was apparent not only from the nature of the program and the arrangements that had been made for the

meetings, but also from the full information sent to the fraternal delegates in advance of the meeting, and from the welcome that was extended to them on their arrival. In my case this included a host and guide in the person of James C. Wickenden, Headmaster of Tabor Academy, and Trustee of my home institution. Everything that could be done to make a visitor feel at home was done, and we were free to visit and observe any of the activities that had interest for us.

I spent an evening which began with dinner and ended after midnight with the Standing Committee on Institutions of Higher Education. This committee corresponds to the Board of Review of the North Central Association, and has the responsibility for making recommendations with respect to accreditation of colleges and universities. It was interesting to note the similarities in the problems faced in the two regions, and to realize that time alone is not enough to create a strong educational institution; that there are, in fact, institutions who in more than a century of existence have not progressed to the point where accreditation is appropriate.

Both the New England Association and the North Central Association, in defining the conditions of membership, have struggled with the question of the educational objectives of the institutions to be included. The position of the North Central Association is that institutions of higher education should have a significant component of general education in their programs to be eligible for membership. A much more liberal view is that any institution providing education beyond the high school should be included, and that the regional associations should make provision for the accreditation of all these institutions, no matter how specialized their programs. Numerous difficulties are encountered in the effort to establish and apply uniform standards of accreditation when there is little common ground to be found in the educational objectives of the institutions considered. But the growing significance of regional accredita-

tion brings mounting pressures from specialized institutions for inclusion in the fold.

The New England Association classifies its members into six groups: colleges, teachers' colleges, specialized institutions, junior colleges, independent secondary schools, and public secondary schools. The existence of the two classifications of secondary schools and the fact that the number of independent schools is more than a third of the number of public schools in the membership points up a significant contrast with the situation in the North Central Association. This contrast is undoubtedly due to the fact that educational progress in New England was much farther advanced before the rise of public education. The less important role of state and municipal universities and junior colleges in New England is another aspect of this historical development. It is interesting to speculate on the possibility that during the next few decades the changes in higher education may greatly alter the relative importance of public and private higher education in New England.

The specialized institutions that are members of the New England Association include two art schools, two music schools, a business administration institute, a Hebrew teachers' college, a technological institute, an institution the specialized nature of which cannot be inferred from its name, and the United States Coast Guard Academy. Heterogeneous as this group is, there can be no doubt that there are many other institutions in New England providing specialized training beyond the high school that are not members of the New England Association. Are they excluded because they have not sought membership, because they did not qualify for accreditation, or because the nature of their programs do not qualify them for membership in the Association? To the extent that the last of these reasons applies, it would appear that the New England Association makes a distinction similar to that made by the North Central Association but

draws the line at a different point. The question of specialized institutions is a difficult one and it seems likely that there is no completely satisfactory solution to it.

The visit to the meetings of the New England Association was a stimulating and enjoyable experience. This report should not end without a reference to the high quality of the program, which was climaxed by a most able and forthright address of the Suez question by Sir Percy Spender, The Ambassador from Australia to the United States, and Head of the Australian Delegation at the United Nations.

THE MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION

J. Fred Murphy

MY EXPERIENCES at the Middle States Association Annual Meeting in Atlantic City on November 23-24 were very much like the experiences we have at a North Central Association meeting. There are many similarities of the Middle States Association when compared with the North Central. The membership, however, is smaller. For the year 1956-57, there are 868 secondary schools and 240 colleges and universities which hold membership in the Middle States Association.

Some of the major problems discussed related to:

1. What are the best ways to meet the new challenges in the secondary schools and colleges due to the potential bulge in enrollment?
2. How can the MSA cooperate with the President's Committee in sponsoring a regional conference which will deal with the critical educational problems?
3. What steps can be taken to encourage each institution to evaluate itself in light of its responsibilities for the next two decades?
4. Shall the MSA accept the new policy adopted by a special committee of MSA and become a co-operating member of the National Council of Accreditation for Teacher Education?
5. How can there be a more effective working relationship between high schools and colleges?
6. Can a uniform blank be worked out which will satisfy the different colleges and universities and help to simplify preparation of such blanks by the high school?

A number of different problems was

considered by the Commissions but cannot be reported here.¹

Certain outstanding reports were made which indicated the energy with which the MSA works. The schedule for evaluating colleges and universities is so crowded that 1959 is the earliest date at which an unaccredited college or university may get on the schedule for evaluation. The ten-year cycle for review of institutions is nearing completion. The general policy which MSA promulgates places the responsibility for the inter-scholastic athletic program upon the college or university. Outside influences are being restricted by the institutions themselves.

There was a definite expression that the potential increase in enrollments must be met by a cooperative program developed by both private and public institutions. Maximum efforts must be made by both if educational opportunities are to be provided for all—education for all appears to be the expressed desire.

The meeting of the MSA was full of business, understanding, and inspiration. The schools and colleges of the Middle States area are improving in their quality of education due to the work of this Association.

SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Elmer Ellis

BY OZARK AND BRANIFF AIR LINES I was carried to Dallas where the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was in session at the Adolphus and Baker Hotels on December 3 to 6. It was a pleasure to be guided and entertained by Dean Judson C. Ward of Emory University. With me as guests but with different hosts and guides, were Anne Wellington, Head-Mistress of The Emma Willard School of Troy, New York and Vice President of the Middle States Association, and Francis V. Lloyd, Jr., Vice Rector of St. Paul's School at Con-

cord, New Hampshire and Second Vice President of the New England Association.

The Southern Association impressed me as being very much like our own. It spreads over a vast geographical region with a great variety of institutions, as we do, and its problems were very similar. The theme, "Education in an Expanding Economy," made the problems of growth overshadow the entire meeting. Program-wise it was broken down into elements of facilities, teaching staff, and finance.

Only two differences strike the North Central Association visitor. First, the Southern Association moves its annual meeting from city to city. Moreover, the two hotels in Dallas which served the program were located across the street from each other and presented no difficulties in transferring from session to session. The other difference was the number of separate organizations that meet with the Southern Association, especially the church-related schools and colleges in their respective denominational groups.

The separate sessions of the Association were like our own in their topics and in their presentations. There were few occasions during the discussions when the visitor might not easily have believed he was attending his own conference. The only striking exception was the cooperative program in elementary education maintained by the Southern Association which has no counterpart in our own Association.

Good fellowship was the prevalent tone of the arrangements for the delegates and a special luncheon by the Executive Committee for the visiting delegate furnished the occasion for formal welcomes and the exchange of greetings from the fraternal delegates.

In every respect the meeting was a constructive and enjoyable one.

THE NORTHWEST ASSOCIATION

Carl G. F. Franzen

AS FRATERNAL DELEGATE from the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools I attended the annual meeting of the Northwest Association of

¹ EDITOR'S NOTE.—Mr. Murphy's comprehensive report to the Executive Secretary of the Association includes many items pertinent to the work of the North Central Association.

Higher and Secondary Schools at Portland, Oregon, December 2-5, 1956. This Association has only two commissions, one dealing with colleges and universities and the other with secondary schools. The most noticeable differences between their operation and ours are the smaller groups and a greater informality in the conduct of business. Many of the problems discussed reminded me of our own attempts at formulating policies and the like twenty-five years ago, and yet there are some that are common to us today.

I attended the meeting of a group of Higher Commission representatives on Sunday, December 2. The morning session was devoted to a discussion of ways to cooperate with the NACTE. They agreed that only such institutions as are accredited by the Northwest Association can be subject to accreditation by the NACTE. At noon I sat in on the committee that was considering the problem of graduate study. Their final recommendation was that all schools that had initiated such a program *since* 1946 were to be judged on the nature and quality of their graduate work, but that institutions that were not now offering graduate work but were contemplating doing so be evaluated by the Higher Commission beginning in 1957, and that *all* institutions have their graduate work evaluated within the next eight years.

In the afternoon session, Dr. Selden of NACTE discussed the relationship of the National Commission with AAUW, which the Commission does not recognize as an accrediting institution. A compromise proposal has been submitted that the AAUW rely on the regional accrediting association except for the part that women have in the curriculum and life of the institution. The report of the committee on graduate study was submitted and adopted. Then came a report on the accrediting of specialized schools. No such school can be accredited unless there is a core of liberal arts in the offerings and there is a proper balance between general and special education.

Monday was devoted to the review of the reports of member institutions. The Higher Commission spent its time reviewing the reevaluation reports of seven institutions. This Commission has embarked upon the ambitious project of reevaluating all member schools within a three-year period. The Secondary Commission was divided into reviewing committees, none of which had more than a dozen or fifteen members. The report form is much more detailed than ours. The different standards (so labeled) are printed right on the form itself.

Since the annual meeting of the Association came but three months after the opening of school, some State Committees had not been able to go over their state reports until the Sunday prior to the meeting of reviewing committees. Consequently, schools that had deficiencies of one sort or another could not be notified before the time of the annual meeting so that there was practically no supporting evidence to explain the cause for any failure to meet standards.

The Committee on New Schools was the interesting one. No school that was applying had been evaluated. In 1954 a resolution had been adopted that no school be admitted that had not had a self-evaluation. Consequently, some states had not submitted any new schools this year. The committee accepted only one new school.

The Committee on Warned Schools also can recommend that a school be dropped. The report form contains no statement about the Association action the previous year, so that the committee has no way of telling what last year's status was. Salaries of teachers are not reported, nor was there any evidence that the teacher data had been checked against their transcripts. The committee felt that no school should be warned unless it had been previously advised, and that no school could be dropped until it had been warned. One school in Montana with three teachers and an enrollment of twenty-five had not been advised or warned last year. Evidently there is no

standard on size of school, because the committee recommended that this school be advised. In Montana size of school is a hot issue. A school with 137 pupils was considered a large school. Turnover was an important factor in warning a school. The average turnover seemed to be from 40 to 50 percent. In some small schools it was 100 percent.

At three o'clock I visited the David Douglas High School in a suburb of Portland. Others went to the new Woodrow Wilson High School. Douglas is situated in the fastest growing area of Oregon. It has 1450 pupils, of whom 80 percent are transported by bus. The reputed cost of the building was \$7.80 a square foot.

Tuesday was given over to general meetings of the two Commissions. I spent most of my time with the secondary group. The Higher Commission gave attention to the reports that had been prepared on Sunday. The fraternal delegate to the North Central Association meeting said that our reports are more meticulously and carefully prepared, and that there was not enough time in the Northwest Association to review the reports before the annual meeting.

Dr. Irving Lieberman, of the University of Washington, said that his institution was the only one to offer a five-year course in librarianship, but that undergraduate courses were recommended for teacher librarians.

Mr. C. W. Williams, of Portland, described the handling of gifted children from the first grade on. In the high schools some ninety special seminars are provided for 1,100 students, each one of whom studies an advanced problem which he must then teach his seminar group.

In the afternoon I talked on "Assignment in Thailand," after which the reviewing committees made their reports, the number on each committee, the number of reports dealt with, how many were sustained and how many changed for each state, but no official action was taken in the form of a motion to adopt a committee report.

That evening was the occasion for the annual banquet. The fraternal delegates brought greetings from their organizations. Dr. John Richards, Chancellor of the Oregon State System of Higher Education, gave the main address, "Ten Years of Travail," in which he presented the problems of rising enrollments in colleges and universities.

Wednesday morning and afternoon were devoted to general meetings of the Association. Mr. Edgar Smith, a member of the President's Commission on Higher Education, spoke feelingly on the subject of education beyond the high school and the various ways in which the increasing numbers may be taken care of. He was followed by Dr. Errett Hummel who spoke on selective methods of admission to college. On February 2, 1956, the attorney general of Oregon had ruled that the university board of trustees could establish rules for restricting the number of entering students. Dr. Hummel presented three bases for restriction, past academic record, some sort of examination, and subjective analysis of personality and character, listing the advantages and disadvantages of each one.

The afternoon session was a business meeting. It was moved to drop the California secondary schools next year. Two new secondary schools were admitted, 352 schools were approved, 167 advised, 32 warned, and 1 dropped.

Seven colleges and universities had been reevaluated. They were approved for five years, some of them subject to interim reports. Portland State College was admitted on a three-year basis.

The nominating committee made its report. So did the executive secretary-treasurer, Dr. Fred Stetson. The Association pays the expenses of forty members to the annual meeting, but does not allot any money to the State Committees.

My visit gave me a better understanding of the problems faced by one sister Association in the northwest and a deeper appreciation of the work being done by our own Association.

THE WESTERN COLLEGE ASSOCIATION

Lowell B. Fisher

THE BIG DC-7 gently touched its gear to the cement runway of the Sacramento, California, Airport after seven hours of non-stop flight from Midway Airport in Chicago. When I boarded this plane the temperature was a cool 50 degrees. When I set foot on the Sacramento Airport the temperature was near 90 degrees. The sky was blue, the foliage green, and the color of the flowers radiantly vivid. What a beautiful setting Sacramento was for the Annual Fall Meeting of the Western College Association.

The Western College Association is quite a different organization from the other Regional Associations. The voting membership is composed primarily of the higher institutions of learning in California with a few member higher institutions from some adjoining states. The junior colleges of the state are considered members but the officials from these institutions do not have the power to vote. The total membership is small compared with that of the North Central Association. The officers are a president, vice president, and a full-time executive secretary-treasurer, whose salary is paid by the Association. There is an Executive Committee composed of six persons, two of whom are honorary members; and a Commission on Membership and Standards composed of seven.

The program for this meeting was most interesting since the theme was "Effective Utilization of Faculty Resources in a Period of Rapidly Expanding Enrollments." Dr. John R. Richards, Chancellor of the Oregon State System of Higher Education, presented a paper entitled, "Most Effective Utilization of College Faculties." (It will be remembered by many in the North Central Association that Chancellor Richards was formerly at the Wayne State University and was active in the North Central Association. It will further be remembered that he once visited some of our Dependent Schools overseas early in our experience of ac-

crediting those schools.) His paper was very comprehensive, scholarly, and revealing. Dr. Arthur G. Coons, President of Occidental College presented an address entitled, "Educational Values to be Conserved Despite Rapidly Increasing Enrollments." There were panel presentations and group discussion meetings concerning the general theme.

Since the membership is small the Association has a homogeneity that can not be achieved in a large group such as the North Central Association except as we divide ourselves into groups and commissions. I received the impression that this organization is most effective so far as higher education is concerned in the State of California. It gives the officials of the higher institutions an opportunity to assemble twice a year systematically to discuss mutual problems and ways and means of improving education at the higher educational level. In a way, it could be said that this organization is accomplishing in California what we hope to accomplish in our district meetings which are being held and sponsored by our Commission on Colleges and Universities.

I did feel, however, the lack of working relationships between the higher institutions, the junior colleges, and the secondary schools. The Executive Committee of the Western College Association has been considering this problem. I took the liberty of suggesting to the delegates in my short talk at the banquet that it would seem logical that an organization such as theirs should include the secondary schools and that possibly such an organization might have at least three commissions—namely, a Commission on Colleges and Universities, a Commission on Junior Colleges, and a Commission on Secondary Schools. I am sure that most members feel the need for closer working relationships at the three levels and it is quite possible that this will be considered at the Spring Meeting of the Western College Association.

In closing my report, I again wish to commend the Western College Association upon the excellent work it is doing in

the field of higher education for the State of California. The persons in attendance at this meeting were most hospitable and cordial to me as the fraternal delegate from the North Central Association. Dr. Marshall P. Briggs, Executive Secretary-Treasurer, was most liberal in making me feel at home with the delegates in attendance. Dr. Malcolm A. Love, President of the Association and President of San Diego State College, likewise extended the hand of good fellowship and hospitality at all times. Incidentally, President Love will be the official delegate from the Western College Association to the Annual Meeting of the North Central Association this year. President Guy A. West, of Sacramento State College, was an excellent host to the entire group. I think all college presidents might well envy Dr. West as president of one of the newest educational institutions in the United States, which though so new that the buildings still glisten in the sun, already has a most enviable tradition and esprit de corps—and too, nature has provided Sacramento with a luxurious setting.

THE NCATE LISTED BY THE NATIONAL COMMISSION ON ACCREDITING

THE FOLLOWING ITEM appeared in *The Reporter* for March, 1957. *The Reporter* is published by the Commission on Colleges and Universities. Approval of the NCATE is interesting to all teacher-educating institutions.

The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education has been placed on the list of approved accrediting associations of the National Commission on Accrediting. This action of the National Commission was taken following a reconstitution of the NCATE to provide for majority representation of institutions of higher education on the Council. Among the representatives of institutions of higher education are three persons representing the regional accrediting associations. Dr. Frank R. Kille, Dean and Professor of Zoology at Carleton College, Northfield, Minnesota, and Vice-Chairman of the Commission on Colleges and Universities, will serve

as one of the three regional association representatives for the period 1957 to 1959.

At a recent conference with Dr. Earl Armstrong, Executive Director of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, it was agreed to experiment with the development of working relationships between NCATE and the North Central Association through the same means that have been so successful with other professional accrediting associations—the generalist plan. Under this plan the examining team of the specialized accrediting agency is accompanied by a representative of the North Central Association, if the institution being visited desires that this be done.

Information about the generalist plan may be secured from the office of the Secretary of the Commission, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

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Education for World Freedom¹

I CANNOT HELP RECALLING my feeling, in younger years, when, at meetings such as this, a gray-thatched elder who hadn't held a piece of chalk in years, got up to tell us how to shape the future of education. Too often, it developed, the challenges of the future could best be solved by a return to the methods used in the past.

I hope to avoid that pitfall by skirting wide around the whole question of methods. But I must re-state, at the start, some of the basic principles which date back considerably beyond my teaching years.

For, if we are to make any start on the question of education for *world* freedom, we must pay some heed to the principles which underlie our *national* freedom. They are applicable, I believe, to the larger problem.

The principle that freedom and broad, free education are inseparable, is historic with us, but not widely recognized in our world. In England, where academic freedom and national freedom long have been associated, there is only now a realization that widespread opportunity for the fullest education is as important a part of national freedom as is academic freedom.

Just a half-century ago, England's naturalist and novelist, George Gissing, insisted that "Education is a thing of which only the few are capable; teach as you will," he wrote, "only a small percentage will profit by your most zealous energy."

How that contrasts with the historic American declarations so familiar to all of us . . . the words of Washington, Jefferson and Lincoln! Benjamin Rush put it so

succinctly when he said, "To be long-lived, republics must invest in education." Washington, in his farewell address, expressed it this way: "Promote them, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge."

Of special meaning to us in this area is the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 which said:

Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged.

This history of our nation attests to the validity of these basic principles.

Essential to individual freedom is free government.

Essential to free government is a well educated electorate.

Essential to world freedom is a well-educated world.

For education can do much to expand the limits of personal freedom and only the expansion of personal freedom can bring, in the end, world freedom.

Education is not alone, but must be a key force in any social transition.

It seems to me that education has two primary tasks in the movement toward world freedom:

First, it must define freedom to a world confused about its meaning.

Second, it must equip free people to perfect the methods of freedom and to meet the challenges of world leadership.

Defining freedom for people who have never known its real meaning is a more difficult task than it appears to be. The difficulty of language translation is simple compared with the difficulty of translating feelings, traditions, and cultural patterns. Even language translation is difficult, for many languages have no words equiv-

¹ Delivered at the Third General Session of the Sixty-first Annual Meeting of the Association, Chicago, April 13, 1956.

alent to our words, *freedom* and *democracy*.

As teachers we are, perhaps, more aware of that difficulty than are many of our fellow men, for we are constantly working at the task of defining freedom for each student. And among us and our free fellow men, drawing the line between freedom and control is a never-ending task.

Freedom for the individual can never be complete in organized society, for where one individual's freedom impinges upon the freedom of another, there a line must be drawn. This problem is with us in every aspect of freedom. When does the freedom of the press become libel? When does freedom of assembly become mass picketing? Where does free speech end and slander or incitement to riot begin?

In governmental policies the question takes on particular importance, for there the freedom of the individual constantly must be weighed against the freedom of the group.

We have narrowed this fundamental question by insisting that the state shall be the creature of the people. Controls necessary for the freedom of all in our complex society can be imposed only by the people.

Here is where democracy differs sharply from totalitarianism which makes the people servants of the state, with all control imposed upon them from on high.

That is an obvious difference, but you and I as teachers are involved in a more subtle one. Totalitarianism employs the absolute power of the state to regulate the actions, and as far as it can, the very thoughts of people under its control.

Complex as our own laws seem to us, they actually govern only a restricted part of our individual relationships. Much is left to education and persuasion.

Harvard psychologist B. F. Skinner believes that these methods are found acceptable to people in a democracy not so much because they recognize the freedom of the individual or his right to dissent, "but because they make only

partial contributions to the control of his behavior. The freedom they recognize is freedom from a more coercive form of control," he points out. "When they show too much strength to permit disguise, we give them other names and suppress them as energetically as we suppress the use of force."

Thus we reject as "propaganda" or "brain-washing" education which is used to create false beliefs, and decry persuasion built on false premises as demagoguery.

Perhaps this idea of the line between freedom and control, and the method of control of freedom, is our most difficult concept to teach.

When we outline the powers and restrictions on powers of the legislative, judicial, and administrative branches of government, or indicate the divisions of powers between federal, state, and local governments, most students understand and accept the general concepts.

But then, plunge them into practical democracy on the student level, and watch the confusion grow! I suspect that there is not a teacher or educational administrator among us who has not heard some student, stung by the restrictions on student government cry out "Isn't this a free country?"

The fact that governmental responsibilities must be coextensive with governmental powers is a hard lesson to teach.

But our problem is not solely on the student level.

The responsibilities and freedoms of our educational system within our nation have been subject to considerable confusion. There are few universities, worthy of the name, that have not experienced, in recent years, the pressure of groups or individuals who misunderstand the role that freedom plays in education.

The pressure builds particularly against the freedom of the scholar to follow the paths of his studies wherever they may lead, the freedom of students to form groups and to hear speakers of their choice, the need for source material on

systems alien to our own.

The argument is made that these are forces which are working to end our freedom, and thus should be denied freedom.

All our educational institutions are dependent for their very life as free institutions of learning on the preservation of our democratic system and have long been engaged in meeting the challenge of totalitarianism, whether Nazi, Fascist, Communist, or their precursors.

And our educational system has found that freedom can be taught only by example. For only when educational freedoms exist can the great lesson of individual freedom be learned; the lesson that truth can combat falsity, that, as Lincoln put it, "right makes might."

When education finds such difficulties in defining and explaining its own need for freedom to the general satisfaction of groups and individuals which share its culture and traditions, let us not underestimate our task of defining freedom for those who have known only bondage.

We are progressing in this task, but not perhaps as fast as we are in its companion task of helping our nation demonstrate that freedom and our insistence on full educational opportunity are not components of a cumbersome system.

Freedom can be slow, freedom can be exasperating, freedom can give the impression of inefficiency. Totalitarianism's ability to meet challenges immediately and with great strength and apparently unanimity, sometimes gives an impression of efficiency. But in every test, over the long pull, freedom triumphs.

The most practical demonstration of the efficiency of freedom is America's high standard of living. I have heard that our nation's most effective propaganda booklet is a Sears-Roebuck catalog.

For with but 6 percent of the world's population, and 7 percent of its land area, the people of the United States today use 75 percent of all the automobiles made in the world, 50 per cent of the radios, 54 per cent of the refrigerators, 65 percent of

the world's silk, 35 percent of its wool, 24 percent of its cotton and 52 percent of its coffee. We buy and use, as consumers, more than half of the world's rubber, more than a third of its leather and soap.

Yet, we are poor in many important natural resources. We have only 5 percent of the potential water-power for generation of electricity, we have little or no natural rubber, tin, nickel, manganese, mercury, cobalt, industrial diamonds, or quartz crystals. Our known coal, oil, and iron reserves seem great, but that may only be because we know or tell more about what lies beneath our soil than do other nations.

Why is it that our nation which must import practically all of its tin turns out 85 percent of all of the food in the world preserved in cans . . . or that well over half of all the tires in the world are American-made although there is not a single rubber-tree plantation within our borders?

A visitor from Holland, puzzled by such questions, recently gave me full realization of the outside view of our riches. He had landed in New York, seen the towers, the riches, and the vigor of that great metropolis. He visited Washington and was impressed by the scope and dignity of our governmental buildings and operations. He had traveled to the mid-west by automobile and had been enabled to visit farms where the power of electricity and the ingenuity of America have had a striking effect. The barns with milking parlors and machines, the kitchen with its electric stove and cake-mixer, the basement with its automatically controlled oil heat, its freezer, and power shop . . . these were real evidence of national well-being for him.

He spoke with deep gratitude of the tremendous aid which our country had given to his country and to others. Finally he summed up his impressions by asking, "How have you been able to develop an economy which has made this possible, and why cannot we do the same?" I felt it was truly the "\$64,000 question." We discussed the matter in some detail,

covering such important matters as geography, size, resources, climate, common language, unified government, and others. But we agreed that the most important were the provisions of our basic law and the traditions which have grown with it. These provide freedom of opportunity for all, with rewards in proportion to contributions, and education for all to the extent of the individual's capabilities. As a result we are reaching toward the fullest possible use of the talents of our people. Of course we both recognized that we have not completely achieved these high ideals, but our record is better than others in this regard.

Freedom, inherited from our fathers, taught in our schools, guaranteed by our government, and incorporated into our way of life has enabled our nation to provide the highest standard of living any nation in the world has ever known.

But men do not live by bread alone—nor by canned peas.

It is only the intense materialism of the foes of freedom that prompts me to use high living standard as a proof of freedom's effectiveness.

The most exacting test of freedom against totalitarianism is in government, for here the highest arts, the most precise science, the soundest values must be employed.

And it is here that freedom scores its greatest triumph. For the distilled wisdom of the people in a free nation can, through democratic processes, be brought to bear on governmental problems. With protection of the minority voices which a free government guarantees, few ideas are lost, few causes unheard. Democracy's strength lies upon the principle that many minds are greater than one. This principle, combined with our insistence on an educated electorate, a broad body of citizens trained to think and to express their thoughts, has given our nation world leadership today.

A slow and cumbersome system—yes, for the impatient. When a problem arises, broad public understanding of its many

facets must be developed. Many minds must attack it. Many differing opinions on a solution must be heard. And a wise choice of solution must be made.

This may be slow . . . but not half so slow as the method which totalitarians must resort to. Under such a system, solutions must be proclaimed from the top. But a solution which ultimately turns out to be erroneous, cannot be admitted in totalitarian government without the loss of "face," for totalitarian rulers rise and fall upon the strength achieved through blind faith in their infallibility.

They must resort to propaganda, secrecy, deceit, and force to maintain the myth of the leader's infallibility. But when the error can no longer be hidden, the people no longer distracted or delayed, the government must fall, and the process, which once seemed so quick and efficient, must be re-started.

We cannot claim quick victories for freedom in peace or in war . . . only ultimate victory. For as we review the paths mankind has followed in progress through history, we see bright areas where freedom was in the ascendancy, and black ages where it all but perished. Yet, the trend toward freedom has been broadening. From each defeat it gathers strength and returns to spread more widely and take hold more deeply.

I suspect that it always has been difficult for man to stand in some era of history and survey with any accuracy the current progress or recession of freedom. There are those among us today who see freedom's domain dwindling. Others cite evidence that freedom is on the march.

One thing, however, is certain. All of us, who know freedom, can aid its ultimate victory. For those of us who teach, the responsibility in this regard is all-pervading.

We must, through education, help future generations realize the full potentials of freedom, increase the extent of freedom even as our society becomes more complex, and help equip free people to meet the challenges of world leadership.

One of the strengths of freedom is, as I indicated a moment ago, its ability to avoid error or, just as important, to admit and correct it. We can, for example, admit that we have not yet realized the full potentials of freedom.

Freedom for all still is feared by many. Reinhold Niebuhr recently reviewed the post-war welling up of such fear in this country, and reported that "We seem to be emerging, during the past twelve months, from an hysterical mood which had all the symptoms of a collective psychosis." It cannot be denied, he wrote, "that our moral prestige as the hegemonous power in the free world was gravely impaired by the widely held conviction that our judgments were too emotional to be safe or trustworthy." We had let fear and prejudice weaken our trust in freedom, partly, I suppose, because of the war and our technological advances had brought us new responsibilities for world leadership that we were not fully equipped to shoulder. Until we reached a point where the ground again seemed solid under our feet, we were inclined to question whether the freedom that had stood us well in every crisis since the founding of our nation was an adequate tool for the work we now had to do.

There is today about us considerable evidence that our confidence is returning, that our faith in free traditions is being reinforced. Our schools and colleges can further this faith and help future generations weather the crises that are sure to come, better equipped than we have been.

We who help shape the minds of future generations must instill in students a sense of the dignity of freedom, a knowledge of its effectiveness, and a realization of its importance both to the individual and to the world. We must inspire students to employ this knowledge and this feeling in positive, constructive, dynamic contributions to the cause of freedom.

Charles Evans Hughes once pointed out the difficulty we face in making students realize that our free government

"is not something apart from us, or above us; that it is we ourselves organized in a grand cooperative effort to protect mutual rights and to secure common opportunity and improvement."

Freedom is something, he indicated, that constantly must be re-won.

Gratifying as is the vast extent and variety of our accomplishment, he warned, one cannot be insensible to the dangers to which we are exposed. No greater mistake can be made than to think that our institutions are fixed or may not be changed for the worse. We are a young nation and nothing can be taken for granted. If our institutions are maintained in their integrity, and if change shall mean improvement, it will be because the intelligent and the worthy constantly generate the motive power which, distributed over a thousand lines of communication, develops that appreciation of the standards of decency and justice which we have delighted to call the common sense of the American people.

To bring freedom to the world, we must, then, guard and reinforce our own freedom, then communicate its benefits to the unfree.

But communication seldom is a one-way street. If we are to export freedom for foreign examination, we must be ready to examine foreign ideas. Here is where faith in freedom, not fear of freedom, is so important.

We want the unfree to know about our Constitution, our government, our economy, our way of life. Then we must be willing to study theirs. Actually, if we refuse to examine their ideas and ideals, we cannot hope to present ours in a way they can understand.

Again I am not suggesting anything radical or new. Confucius is reported to have said, "The nature of men is identical; what divides them is their customs." Our educational system has involved itself in many programs seeking international understanding. My own institution, and perhaps most of yours, has taken part in the international exchange of students and teachers. This I believe is an excellent program . . . the sort of program which, in the long run, may well do more for international freedom than any other.

For in a limited way, it is helping us to

know each other across national boundaries as people . . . as individuals each seeking happiness and progress. We should improve and expand such programs. But some other method is needed if we are to make it possible for everyone to take an active part in reaching international understandings.

Any program of such scope cannot be simply a project of an agency in Washington. Federal aid on an expanded scale is needed. But it is on our home ground that mass participation in international understanding must be built. Our schools and colleges provide excellent agencies to take the lead.

Not too long ago there was a sudden national awareness that our youngsters showed alarming weakness in their knowledge of American traditions and the historical development of the freedoms they inherited. It may have been irritating to some of us in education to have this forcefully pointed out to us by those outside of education, but this is the way of freedom, and when we took a careful look, we found considerable justification of the criticism. Once aware of our shortcomings in this respect, we remedied them, for that, too, is the way of freedom.

But knowledge of our own accomplishments is not enough, if we are to sell freedom to the world. The consequences of such an attitude were parodied, you may recall, in this bit from "The Belle of New York,"

Our virtues continue to strike us
As qualities magnificent to see.
We know you can never be like us,
But be as like us as you're able to be.

If we are to achieve international understanding and are to maintain and extend the cause of freedom, our people must understand the ideas, the ideals, the culture, and the political systems of other peoples.

The cause of freedom will never suffer from honest and fair comparison with other ideologies, but our people can not be good salesmen for the cause of freedom without full knowledge of the cultural,

social, economic and political patterns of others. Our educational system can play its part in this respect, if it is dedicated, as Thomas Jefferson dedicated the University of Virginia, to complete education. As he put it, "This institution will be based on the illimitable freedom of the human mind. For here we are not afraid to follow truth, wherever it may lead, nor to tolerate any error so long as reason is left free to combat it."

Is it not time to ask ourselves whether our schools are doing all they can for international understanding?

I am only too aware that curriculums today are crowded, as they never were before, by the expansion of man's knowledge and by new stress on technical education. But, at the risk of venturing into the area of methods, an area I was determined not to enter, let me give you one man's view of the way freedom and international understanding might be taught.

I am a bacteriologist by training, an educational administrator by draft. I claim no special knowledge of teaching methods other than those anyone might acquire in a half century of some sort of association with schools from first grade pupil to university administrator. But I have an idea that the title of a course does not define its total content. Or, to put it another way, I've known some chemistry courses that taught citizenship a great deal better than did some civics courses I have known. And I have some feeling that I am not alone in this conception of teaching.

Good teaching opens the mind of the student to all that bears upon the subject matter at hand. And in our interdependent, shrinking world today, what single subject is not touched, in some way, by national policies and international pressures? Certainly, the greatest opportunities and responsibilities are in the humanities, but learning about freedom and our fellowman must be part of the general educational aim of every course that is taught in our free schools. The

subject is so vast, and so important, the goal is so great and critical, that each of us must dedicate our teaching in its behalf.

At the same time we cannot neglect the technical education which has enabled us to make freedom so productive. Nor can we expect others to feel the full benefits of freedom without accompanying it with technical aid. Someone once said that it is difficult to think noble thoughts on an empty stomach, and there seems to be a great deal of international truth in that philosophy.

Harold Taylor has defined the basic purpose of education: "to expand the limits of personal freedom and to give each person a chance to do whatever he can—to become, as is so often said, what he is capable of becoming."

People cannot be free politically unless they are first free of the burden of poverty. Every way in which our educational system helps the world improve living standards is, then, a step toward freedom.

I pointed out earlier that even highly developed England has suffered from lack of widely available educational opportunities. Lord Simon of Wythenshawe, chairman of the council of the University of Manchester, recently pointed this up in the technical field. Speaking of the British Isles he said,

What is wrong in this country is that there are far too few engineers to develop our scientists' ideas as fast and as well as is done in some other countries. It requires engineers in considerable numbers to turn the results of scientific research into articles of practical value, and it is notorious that the Americans, thanks to their wealth of engineers, frequently develop and successfully put on the world market the results of the research of British scientists: penicillin is only one of many outstanding examples.

He admits that output per man in the United States is about double what it is in Britain, and credits our broad opportunities for technical education with causing

the difference.

At the University of Wisconsin, a few years ago, we witnessed an extremely dramatic example of how closely technical advances and freedom are associated. It was the occasion of the World Land Tenure Conference, a gathering of, for the most part, technical experts from many nations, particularly the under-developed ones. They met to talk about how land tenure patterns, usually an integral part of a nation's culture, could be changed to bring about economic improvements.

The talk, in many different tongues, ranged through such varied subjects as the utility of the plow and the value of the family as an economic unit. But the underlying theme was this: How can the knowledge of the advanced nations be used to help the poorer ones?

And many seeds of freedom were thus sown. For the basic requirement for progress is freedom—freedom to inquire, to think, to communicate, to venture, as Eugene Holman once wrote. Without these conditions, the human mind and spirit will be so shackled that the availability of natural resources will be limited. To the free man, all things are possible. Opportunity is the wand which can change the useless into the useful, waste into raw materials of great value, exhaustible resources into inexhaustible resources. It is the key that unlocks the greatest energy sources of all—the infinite power of the human mind.

In summary, then, education for world freedom demands:

Education in the meaning and values of freedom;

Education for a stable and strong economy at home and throughout the world;

Education which will maintain and strengthen opportunities for all; rewards for all; and the fullest possible educational advantages for all.

Sharing Responsibility in Educational Planning¹

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION of Colleges and Secondary Schools provides one of the significant opportunities in America for sharing in the responsibility of educational planning. I sincerely trust that my participation in this discussion will be in keeping with the importance of the task and the urgency of the hour.

I can think of no more dramatically accurate illustration of most of the facets of this problem than this episode on a college campus, an episode that occurred within the past few months and which was related to me by one in attendance. It, too, was a meeting of higher education and secondary education workers. The speaker, an excellent spokesman for that level of education which is lower than higher education, had tried diligently to explain that our high schools were faced with a tremendous need for more and better teachers. He had outlined in some detail the American concept that secondary education was now accepted as being the universal minimum requirement in most American communities. He had tried hard to suggest that while this universality of our high schools had brought some very severe problems to these high schools, there seemed to be almost complete acceptance of the belief that a well planned and well executed high school experience would be valuable for all. He stressed that in addition to those students who would acquire the learnings and the proficiencies needed for the typical college or university experience, the other non-college-preparatory students would ac-

quire some vocational skills, would develop better citizenship abilities and would emerge better equipped to take their places in a difficult world.

The speaker having presented this rather typical point of view asked if there was disagreement with it. One in the audience arose immediately and stated rather emphatically that more and better teachers were needed—but were not needed to impart those citizenship and vocational learnings. He insisted, and remained adamant in his insistence, that more and better teachers were needed only to prepare those students going on to college and—mark you this—the other students did not need more and better teachers, but needed only custodial care.

Let me hasten to make it clear to you that I do not believe this latter speaker represents a typical point of view—at least not a typical expression of a typical point of view. The number who thus believe may be larger than the number who speak thus—but one important spokesman and one small group possessed of that point of view should be of concern to each of us here today. And, let me further make it clear that I do not believe the point of view which relegates all non-college-preparatory students to custodial care is held exclusively by college or university people. It is shared by some secondary people and by some lay leaders. Certainly, if I detect some signs correctly, the desire to change the flow of education in America from a broad universality to a process restricted to a chosen few might well be advanced by increasing numbers of individuals and groups in an attempt to economize in the solution of our problems.

¹ Delivered at the First General Session of the Sixty-first Annual Meeting of the Association, Chicago, April 12, 1956.

I am concerned that those who would honestly restrict educational opportunity to a chosen minority by urging a re-definition of our American dream in education do not become the unwitting dupes of those in our land who would restrict our educational processes for other reasons.

This incident, if you and I recognize its practical limitations does, however, illustrate some aspects of our problem which I should like to briefly discuss. First of all—it is my belief that America can no longer afford the luxury of unrelated, un-understood, unsympathetic and presumably inconsistent systems of education.

Each of us is completely aware of at least two great and obvious changes that have come about in American education. I say two changes, but in reality they are part and parcel of the same change—that change being that more and more young Americans are going to elementary school, high school, college and university. I mean not only more and more in numbers but more in percentage of every age group attending elementary and secondary schools, colleges and universities. Some of us in this room attended secondary schools at a time when only 10–15 percent of our age group attended high schools. Now, nationwide it is over 80 percent. In 1900, there were 500,000 young Americans attending our high schools. Now there are eight million. In 1900 there were 238,000 young Americans on our college campuses. This year there are two and one-half to three million. There are not only more young people in our schools and colleges; there are young people in our schools who would not have attended high school or college a generation ago. High school attendance has become virtually a universal practice and more and more of the college age group are now seeking a college diploma if not a college education.

Do you remember what Charles and Mary Beard said in *The Rise of American Civilization*? “The project of universal free education had to be evolved gradually, in

a democratic fashion, under the leadership of men and women with vision who realized that they could move only as fast as the knowledge of the ideal could be disseminated and practical interests enlisted for its support.”

I do not profess to speak with intimate knowledge of what these increased percentages of attendance at our colleges and universities have meant. I understand that there is a difference of opinion within our college faculties on the subject of what can accurately be called proper college or university learning. I do know, however, that within the “educational wastelands,” to use the description of a quite well read author of this state, in our high schools we are forced to plan, devise, and successfully transplant a secondary education to a new type of scholar. When 10 percent of the age group went to high school, quite largely all of the 10 percent present were capable and desirous. They were capable of succeeding in the high school then found in America. They were not only capable of succeeding, but they desired to succeed in that kind of a high school. Included in the 80 or 85 percent of the high school age group now attending high school are, of course, the modern counterparts of this earlier group—the capable and the desirous. Included, also, are others *possibly*—and I underline possibly—incapable of succeeding in the same kind of a high school as some of us attended thirty, forty, or fifty years ago. While we could debate long and furiously over the question of the innate capability of some of our modern travelers thru “the educational wastelands,” there can be no question about the fact that not all of these travelers are desirous of succeeding in the traditional type of high school.

However, as we pause to examine the secondary field, let us not forget that there seem to be a question or two arising in higher education. It is not my function or purpose to comment on “the great debate” in higher education or even to underline either side of “The Dual Mandate of American Higher Education” as

it is called in the December issue of the *Journal of Teacher Education*. Suffice to say that President de Kiewiet in his article in the December *Journal* in pointing to another aspect of the problem of higher education quite clearly illustrates my point when he states,

There is an obvious trap into which some colleges and faculties seem already to have fallen. It is the trap of assuming that the total responsibilities of higher education can be met by a division of these responsibilities between colleges that are first-rate and those that are second-rate, or between private schools and public schools, between those who proudly take an uncompromising position on selectivity and standards, and those who cannot or do not want to do so. Some educators have been quite blunt in stating these assumptions publicly. In other cases these assumptions can be clearly read into pronouncements made in a more discreet or guarded fashion.

It may be that I have labored this point too vigorously. But it has seemed important to me that we, regardless of who we are—whether we work in the “educational wastelands” or whether we work in so-called higher education, recognize that our field and all other fields of post-nursery school education are being tried in the crucible of differing public and professional opinions. Mine is not a plea for a wiping out of differences of opinion. Mine is a plea for a highly professional recognition of the differing philosophies, the differing tasks, and the varied procedures possible and even necessary in our American education. Quality and quantity do not necessarily involve a conflict. In truth, I do not believe that we in education can afford to permit the conflict to arise or continue between our dual responsibilities for quality and quantity. I re-state my first contention that America, and most certainly these most typically American mid-central states, cannot afford the luxury of unrelated, unsympathetic, un-understood, and presumably inconsistent systems of education. America, not you and I, but America has made and is making some basic determinations about education. America is insisting that its young people of succeeding generations are to have more and more education. You and I as professional educators must

devise the educational system. If America is to maintain its high place in the galaxy of nations, if this American dream is to survive, we must always have a quality of education available for those capable and desirous of absorbing it. America cannot afford the dubious luxury of education at war with itself. It has been said that no controversy has greater meaning for the American people than this current controversy over who should be educated and how they should be educated. Let us as professional workers in the field realize that professional leadership is as President de Kiewiet expresses it, “under compulsion to pay the closest and most continuous attention to the manner in which these problems are discussed and understood by trustees, legislators, civic leaders, and their own faculties.” We cannot afford to divide our forces. In division we fail in our responsibilities to America and to its youth.

In terms of the title assigned to me for this presentation, the second implication of my initial incident seems crystal clear. If we, as professional co-workers in education, have not understood each other, or if we do not accept the point of view of the other, then to me it becomes urgently necessary for us to engage in some joint educational planning. If I understand America rightly, the concern of this nation is for the entire structure of education, not for the parts that go to make up that structure. Oh, surely if the supporting beam of elementary education is weak, or if the capping plate of college work is askew, we are greatly concerned about it. But our concern is that in such weakness, the process of education is not meeting its full obligation to youth and to America. Our concern of whether Johnny can read is not a concern primarily over phonics or over elementary education, but is rather a concern over Johnny. Later on, when Johnny has gone thru “the educational wastelands” and has been exposed to the college and university scholars, if then Johnny won’t read, we do not express our concern for the college or university but rather for the generation of which he is a

non-reading member. But if I understand the current scene correctly, we are complicating each other's problems because too many of us who analyze, criticize, and even cauterize do so under the mistaken notion that a segment of this educational structure can right itself independently and separately. The spokesman for higher education who regards the educational structure as poorly founded and as improperly erected as the leaning tower of Pisa—even he cannot effectively straighten out the very top of that structure by himself. There may be much of custodial care in the lower floors of that structure; there may even be wastelands in the middle, if that is possible architecturally. Granting all of that, the leaning tower of Pisa will never be straightened until all of the builders, the planners, the designers, and even the stockholders working together agree upon their plan. Even such a professional organization as this is incapable of solving the problems of education in its member institutions by working only within its member institutions. I go back to Horace Mann who said in his first annual report as secretary of the Board of Education of Massachusetts covering the year 1837,

Our institutions for the education of our children depend for their success not more upon the perfection of their individual parts, than upon their adaptation and concurrent working. The co-operation of many different agents is essential to their prosperity. In examining the causes of failure, therefore, in a system so extensive and complex, not only ought its several parts be scrutinized and their details mastered, but the relation and fitness of each wheel to the whole machinery should be scanned; because parts, individually perfect, may counterwork each other from maladjustment, and thus impair or wholly destroy the desired results.

Thus spoke Horace Mann about the complexity and extensiveness of American education and its problems one hundred and fifteen years ago. What would his comment be today?

It is my firm conviction that the educational pattern of America can never be established by one segment of education. I do not believe higher education can determine the course by saying to the elementary and secondary schools, "You

have autonomy and freedom. But if your graduates are to be accepted by us or if they are to succeed with us, here are the courses, here are the objectives and here are the standards by which they shall be educated in the elementary and secondary schools." Neither do I believe that the elementary and secondary schools of America can determine the educational destiny of America without due consideration of institutions of higher education. Each segment can try—great universities can question liberal arts colleges, private education may be cynical about public education, elementary schools may indict secondary schools, and liberal arts colleges may point with an accusing finger at secondary schools. But as we busily engage in indicting each other, we must remember that the final result of indictment and counter-indictment could possibly be that we will succeed in convincing America that we are all wrong. Let me repeat, that if we do not understand each other, if we do not accept each other's point of view, there is only one truly professional remedy. If we do accept the professional soundness of other workers in the educational vineyard, but believe they are mistaken in their objectives and procedures, the same professional remedy is advisable. If we believe that the future of America and the future of mankind and the future of education are inseparably inter-twined, it is my belief that the same remedy should be sought; namely, sharing the responsibility of educational planning. If we believe that education should remain free and unfettered, decentralized and independent, answerable only to its responsibility if we believe with Max Ascoli when he said, "The core of a nation's philosophy is to be found in its philosophy of education, for it is what the educators do to the young people in school that ultimately decides the success or failure of the statesman," then we had better devise a procedure for safeguarding that educational system.

America needs to develop, understand, and accept the basic educational concept that many different educational paths

must be devised and must be traveled by young America. America needs to develop, understand, and accept the basic educational concept that though educational paths may vary, if these paths bring acceptable competence to him who travels, it is good sound education. America needs to develop, understand, and accept the basic educational fact that, while America needs to develop great scholars, great scientists, great experts and great leaders, there will always be in America millions of good solid substantial undramatic, unsensational citizens, who will elect presidents, vote budgets, determine foreign and domestic policy, and even build schools and universities. America needs to develop, understand, and accept the fact that all Americans going by way of all of the various educational avenues are all important—and that the process of maximum education for each is important. America will not readily nor easily accept the multiplicity of goals or of methods in our educational world unless we as educators accept it. America cannot properly accept these goals and methods unless we in education join and share in the responsibility of their development. If we believe in and are concerned about America, we had better learn to work together better in America's education.

Finally, assuming for the moment that you accept my very simple thesis that we cannot afford the luxury of unrelated, understood, unappreciated systems of education and that we in education need to sit down together and work at it, then we come to a very practical final consideration: How might we do it more effectively?

I realize that every institution or system represented here today symbolizes a shared responsibility of lay and professional people. It may be a school board working with a principal or a superintendent, a board of trustees with a president, a board of regents with a president, or the same general arrangement under various other names and labels. I have two questions. First, in how

many of the situations here represented, do faculty members participate in over-all educational planning in a significant manner? I realize that there is much departmental planning and a lot of advice and counsel proffered by classroom people. But in how many of the institutions here represented, do classroom teacher opinions really count in the determination of over-all educational planning?

My second question is interesting to me. I sat for twenty-five years on that precarious corner of a school board table reserved for that most precarious of all individuals, the local school administrator, in our state, the city superintendent. Thru all of those twenty-five years, as I try now to examine them with complete candor and honesty, I believe I exemplified that textbook conviction that school boards had three basic jobs: hire a good superintendent, secure an adequate budget, and let the superintendent carry on. Oh, there were a few hardy souls that objected, and I don't believe I ever really spelled it out quite that harshly. But I am sure that in too many of those twenty-five years I was thinking and talking about "my schools and my teachers." I could moralize and draw some very interesting deductions, but I shall refrain and simply suggest that for six and one-half years I have been sitting on the other precarious corner of that educational table, that of a board member on college and university boards. I can assure you it is interesting. I do not know of a finer group of educators that could be found anywhere than those with whom I work in Wisconsin—I am sure they do not agree with the viewpoint to which I confessed in at least the earlier portion of my twenty-five years of administration. That is, they do not agree audibly. I am sure they are happy to have board members, trustees, and regents on some occasions, but I am equally sure that confidentially there are some who believe that quiet, acquiescent board members are ideal board members. I know they will indignantly deny this afterwards to me—at least I hope they will.

But, seriously, I am convinced that all of us, in whatever capacity we serve, need to be convinced that in every educational enterprise there needs to be more searching, more complete, more frank cooperation between teachers, administrators, and citizens. And by that I do not mean that we, the professionals, should sort out some little morsels for our classroom people and the public. I mean rather that we need to get all of the factors of education involved in the basic problems of education. If we are to have public acceptance and professional cooperation in the development and operation of our program of education, we need to develop patterns of more complete participation in the planning of those educational programs. In these critical days and in the decade ahead, an adjustment in our educational program is inevitable, either toward a more diversified and more equitably implemented program or toward a more restrictive philosophy. Our direction will be determined, in part, by the degree of genuine participation of our lay leaders in which they will be given an opportunity to test their convictions and their statements.

That kind of shared responsibility in planning, however, will not be adequate for the days ahead. Increased participation horizontally will be helpful but not sufficient. We need to develop an improved pattern of increased and more genuine vertical planning. We need to develop in our several states and in America a community of educational statesmanship that binds all levels of education and all factors on each level together in development of and then in pursuit of an educational objective appropriate to the day in which we live. I do not believe that leadership in the educational profession can meet its proper obligation by simply pointing out and even decrying the competition that exists for the supporting dollar, whether it be a tax dollar or a gift dollar. I do not believe that we are selfishly wiser if we point to our segment as the most essential segment of

education. I believe we need to develop patterns of cooperative planning running all the way from the graduate schools of our great universities down to the kindergartens of our elementary schools or up if you would rather acknowledge the support, the concern, and the insistence of the public upon availability. I believe we need to sit down together, planning a variety of educational procedures to meet a variety of educational objectives that are necessary for a variety of educational responsibilities and having thus recognized the variety of ways to achieve a goal, join together in support of the entire fabric of education. That support to be effective over a long pull must be for all of education and not for an aspect of that education. We need kindergarten experts pointing to the need for graduate schools in natural science and nuclear fission and experts pointing with pride to the teaching of our primary schools. We need professional and lay people concerned about education and involved in education at all levels working with other concerned and involved people at all levels trying to evolve a belief in education as a way of life. We have gone far in education in America and I believe America wishes to continue. To carry us forward we must find a new vision of the needs and purposes of our national life. Those needs and purposes must be translated into our educational aims and patterns. There must be formed in the public minds an opinion and an ideal to which all programs are related and by which they will all be judged. We cannot do this separately. We can hope to do it together. This North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools could make a tremendous contribution to America and to education if it, the Association, were to serve as a beacon light of cooperative planning between the different levels of your institutional membership, rather than to further accentuate the differences in those levels.

I conclude where I began—in the belief that this North Central Association pro-

vides one of the significant opportunities in America for sharing in the responsibilities of educational planning. It has been my humble and unsensational thesis here today that you and I and America can no longer afford the luxury of a fragmentary system of education, that we need to develop and improve our ways of working together and that such working together calls for horizontal expansion to include the public and vertical cooperation, all in the name of a better system of education for young America.

I conclude, also, firm in my beginning conviction that my unknown friend who indicated his belief that those boys and girls not destined for university work merited only custodial care indicated part of our problem. It indicated very forcibly to me that in the solution of our problem we need, first, to learn how to work together professionally. We need to understand the diversification of our youth, the proper diversification of proper goals for those youth, the respectability of several different educational procedures and the

recognition that America will never be completely safeguarded until all of America is educated, not in the same identical fashion, but according to the needs and abilities of individual Americans. If we learn how to work together, then we can hope to work with the rest of America.

Horace Mann said it better in his fourth annual report as secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education. He had discussed the various elements necessary to a good school. He wrote one sentence which I would like to accept as my credo—one sentence to express what I have tried to say to you—and which will be my final sentence: "When a system is so numerous in its parts, and so complex in its structure; when the nice adjustment of each, and the harmonious working of all, are necessary to the perfection of the product; all who are engaged in its operation, must not only have a great extent of knowledge, but they must be bound together by a unity of purpose." Such is my hope for America and for American educators.

Improving Teacher Education through Intercollege Cooperation

IN THE SPRING of 1948 twenty teachers colleges joined in a project sponsored by the Committee on Institutions for Teacher Education of the North Central Association's Commission on Research and Service. Since then forty-one colleges have been involved in a program for self-improvement and for in-service education of the faculties. The philosophy of this project has been that within each college staff lies the potential for the study of the problems of that institution and for much improvement in its practices. The "NCA project," as it has been called, has been a stimulating and coordinating effort aimed at helping the participating colleges effect such improvements in their programs as they have seen fit to undertake.

The Committee has recently published a volume *Improving Teacher Education Through Intercollege Cooperation* (7) which describes in detail the work and the outcomes of the first eight years of this project. Through summer workshops for staff members, visitations to the campuses by "coordinators," the issuance of a news bulletin, the monthly exchange of materials, conferences, regional workshops, and cooperative research studies, the colleges have assisted each other to improve whatever aspects of their programs they see fit. In this article an attempt is made to state briefly what this project has meant, to identify some of its limitations, and to assess the place of such a project in the field of higher education. Good "teacher education" and good "higher education" bear an intimate relation to each other. Much of what has been done by the colleges in this NCA project would be beneficial to any higher institution. However, a college may well do an effective

job in achieving certain goals without necessarily meeting the exacting needs of high-quality teacher education.

THE PURPOSE OF THE "TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTION"

The term "college for teacher education" first became widely used when the American Association of Teachers Colleges, the National Association of Colleges and Departments of Education, and the National Association of Teacher Education Institutions in Metropolitan Districts united and took on a new name (3:45). When the North Central Association committee assigned to develop a cooperative project among teachers colleges was looking for a title for the colleges to be involved, it seemed appropriate to adopt the same terminology. So the NCA project became that of the "Committee on Institutions for Teacher Education."

The *For* in this title is intended as an affirmative, a declaration of intention. "Institutions *for* Teacher Education" are colleges which are whole-heartedly concerned with the highest quality education of teachers. Since all of these institutions offer at least four years of collegiate work and several of them five years, and since most of them are expected to serve regional purposes, it has been quite natural that they should be looked to by many young people for purposes other than teacher education. It is the exception rather than the rule for a "teachers college" to devote its energies exclusively to the education of teachers, although this still remains the primary purpose of the institutions that have been involved in the NCA project. "The Goal is Teachers" was the title of a challenging address to

the AACTE at its 1955 annual meeting (6). This title expresses the purpose generally assumed by the colleges in this project.

SUMMARY OF AREAS STUDIED BY THE COLLEGES

The staff in teacher education

The *sine qua non* of improvement in any higher institution is a dedicated staff—conscious of purpose, free to investigate, and rewarded by a sense of accomplishment and growth. It is too much to expect all faculty members to achieve this kind of dedication; but most college faculties have a sufficient number of such teachers to make significant self-study and improvement possible. Such a project as this one sponsored by the North Central Association has provided means of stimulation and coordination. It also has helped to provide avenues for study and accomplishment. No outside agency, however, no matter how earnestly it seeks to involve the local staff on a permissive basis, can function effectively without the reinforcement of administrative leadership. In the development of sound faculty personnel practices the college administrator has his greatest opportunity to provide the setting within which significant faculty growth can take place.

General education

Widespread study of the meaning, philosophy, and practice of general education has characterized the activities of the faculties of colleges in the NCA project. There is consensus on this proposition: prospective teachers need breadth and depth of general education equal to that, if not in excess of that, of all other college students. No faculty in the NCA project has failed to study the implications of this conclusion.

1. The analysis of current offerings and prescriptions usually has revealed problems of vested interests, differences of conception of general education and gaps in the offerings.
2. In redesigning courses many approaches have been used, including a good deal of emphasis upon the analysis of student needs; but there has

been considerable disillusionment with survey courses which attempt coverage of wide fields of subject matter. A major need has been for breaking down old subject matter lines in the search for more meaningful student learning experiences.

3. The study of general education has involved reconsideration of teaching methods and learning experiences. There is a significant school of thought which argues that general education requires a revamping of traditional teaching so that more significant learnings may result.
4. Increase in prescription of general education requirements has been common, including a strong tendency for state departments of education to include such requirements in certification requirements.
5. Evaluation of the outcomes of general education in terms of student learnings is one of the greatest needs and most difficult phases of the general education movement.
6. More attention should be given to the general education implications of informal experiences such as those gained in social activities, clubs, dormitory life and the like. It has been recognized that general education and student personnel services have purposes in common, but not enough has been done to study the implications of this assumption.

Improving Instruction

The improvement of instruction both as a need and a possibility has taken a strong hold upon the imagination of the faculties in the NCA project. The ready acceptance of the need for better teaching in these colleges has been one of the outstanding facts of this cooperative project.

1. Much attention has been given to the evaluation of teaching and of the instructor. This has been especially true in the widespread development of devices for student evaluation of courses. There has also been much attention to professorial self-evaluation and some attention to alumni evaluation. In all colleges student evaluation has been left in the hands of the individual instructor.
2. Objectives of instruction and their relation to evaluation of student achievement have received much attention. The growing recognition that objectives must be meaningful as revealed in recognizable student achievements has been a significant development.
3. Attention to teaching methods and principles of teaching has been given by several workshop and campus groups. While some of this study has been the usual delineation of the advantages and disadvantages of the lecture, or some other "method," there has been increasing concern with how to adjust to individual differences, mental health in the classroom, the psychology of

learning, and the group processes of the classroom.

4. Some attention has been given to aids to better teaching, such as audio-visual methods and the like. Less emphasis has been given to the library than would seem desirable.
5. There has been a great deal of attention to the college teacher as a person, his problems, his growth, and his self-improvement. It would not be fair to say that faculties have seemed preoccupied with themselves, for such is not the case. But it is clear that college teachers in this project have recognized that to be better teachers they must themselves be better people.

Professional education

It is not surprising that the professional education of the teacher should receive a good deal of attention in these teacher-education institutions.

1. The integration and blending of courses has been wide-spread. The segmentation of professional training has been greatly reduced. It has been hoped that this will result in more functional and professional education; but the evaluation of these changes has, as yet, been incomplete.
2. The evaluation of teacher education programs in terms of functional teacher competencies has been generally accepted as desirable. This has found its widest application in the evaluation of student teaching and in efforts at selective retention of teacher candidates.
3. Early and continuing contacts with children, parents, mature teachers, and others has come to be accepted as a desirable feature of the professional education program. The sequence of laboratory experiences has been given much attention, with resulting improvement of organization, direction, and evaluation of these experiences.
4. The expansion of student teaching to off-campus situations has been the result of both the conviction that such experiences have merit and of the swelling enrollments in teacher education. The role of the campus school has not been adequately clarified, although the building of many new buildings for campus schools indicates no tendency to abandon the college-sponsored school. Much attention has been given to improved ways of supervising teachers, visitations, and the like. As student teaching has moved off-campus, such problems have increased.
5. Sensitivity to the needs of "the field," the public schools served by the college, is very strong in these teacher-education institutions. This finds expression in follow-up services to teachers in the field, services to school staffs, surveys to determine what school administrators want in new teachers, and the like.

Student personnel services

Provision of effective student personnel

services has been a widespread concern of the participating colleges. A broad concept of student personnel work has been generally accepted.

1. The selective admission and retention of teacher candidates has received much attention in spite of teacher shortages and the desire to attract teacher candidates through recruitment methods. A more factual, analytical approach to screening with emphasis upon the pooled judgments of selection committees has been a major development.
2. The orientation of new students to campus life is not a new development in the NCA project, but the increased attention to careful evaluation of orientation programs has been noteworthy. Clinical services to students have increased, both as a natural consequence of the student personnel point of view and because of their usefulness in helping retain promising teacher candidates.
3. The widespread reliance upon the faculty for counseling and advisory service has produced much attention to means of faculty growth in counseling competence.
4. The religious life of students has received a great deal of attention in these colleges, although they are all secular institutions. A number of colleges have campus religious councils officially sponsored by the college.
5. Financial assistance to students has increased, in spite of the fact that the participating colleges are, for the most part, economical to attend. The growth of endowment funds for scholarships, loans, and student aids in these colleges has been noticeable.
6. Placement, follow-up service, and general field services to the schools are strongly emphasized. Their place in teacher education, both as a service to students and graduates and as a source of stimulation and help to the college, has been recognized.
7. The organization of student personnel services has followed no fixed pattern. Centralization of responsibility for a wider range of services has increased.

Fifth-year and in-service programs

The growth of interest in fifth-year and graduate programs in the teacher education institutions participating in the NCA project has been striking.

1. A four-year training program does not "finish" a prospective teacher. Two major lines of development have appeared. One has been the on-campus fifth year, leading to a master's degree, with emphasis on summer school programs. The other is on-the-job training for teachers in the field. The latter often carries at least some advanced credit toward a fifth-year certificate or master's degree.

2. The fifth-year graduate programs of participating colleges without exception lead to a master's degree. They are strongly teacher-education oriented. However, the distribution of work is typically broad, with general education receiving an average of one-fourth of the candidate's time, and the remainder divided about equally between professional education and subject fields.
3. In general, the master's degree in these institutions is a considerably less specialized degree, with much more attention to general cultural education than the old-line specialist's master's degree.
4. There has been a strong tendency to broaden the concept of the college's responsibility and to take its services to people where the people are. This has emphasized services to teachers in the field—workshops, extension courses, teaching aids, consultation service, community services, and the like. The teacher education institutions in the NCA project are conducting far more such services than they did ten years ago and probably do much more of this than most general, regional four-year colleges.

UNSOLVED PROBLEMS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

The most important problems of any college are never "solved." The realization of this truth has grown on many college teachers and administrators who have given serious attention to the problems of their institutions. In this sense, therefore, just about all of the matters studied by colleges participating in the NCA project may be classified as "unsolved problems."

There are also areas of investigation that have not been explored by the participating colleges. A group of matters which relate directly to the administration of the colleges may be mentioned.

1. What are the functions of governing boards? How can these functions be performed more effectively? What should be the relationship between governing boards and the college faculties? In one of the most comprehensive statements to date on needed research in teacher education covering 131 proposed research studies, only three deal with this aspect of teacher education (1:25-26). When one considers the significance of the controlling board in determining institutional policy, more attention should be given to the study of such boards.
2. How may planning for physical plant expansions most fully take into account modern standards and practices in teacher education? Local faculties have had a good deal to do with the planning of new buildings on the various campuses. But

there has been, so far as the NCA project is concerned, little inter-institutional study of plant problems. The 1954 AACTE monograph (1:22-23) suggests a considerable number of studies of buildings, equipment, and facilities which would be fruitful to pursue on a cooperative, inter-institutional basis.

3. What can be done to improve the financial support of teacher education? Some years ago Embree (4) highlighted the relatively low financial support of teacher education and the intervening years have not solved the problems he noted (1:21-23). Financial problems were often discussed informally in groups of NCA project. In these discussions there was consensus on at least one conclusion: teacher education lacks adequate financial support in part because teacher educators have not given enough attention to cultivating public appreciation of the significance of their work.
4. Does the pattern of internal organization of the college influence the quality of the teacher education program? That many specific questions within this broad query can be asked is evident (1:25-26).

In addition to these four administrative matters, there are several other aspects of teacher education which the colleges in the NCA project have not yet studied in any concerted way.

1. What improvements need to be effected in the special subject-matter preparation of secondary school teachers and of elementary school teachers? This matter has received considerable attention in other cooperative studies, as for example the Commission on Teacher Education (2:Ch. IV). That all is well with regard to special subject preparation in teacher education institutions has not been assumed; but little study of this matter has been done in the NCA project.
2. Does the name of an institution have any effect upon its teacher education program? The shift from the "teacher college" title for many of our institutions is familiar. Apparently no actual study of how these shifts may have affected the teacher education programs of these colleges has been made.
3. What responsibility have the teacher education institutions for the education of such school workers as supervisors, guidance counselors, school psychologists, therapists, administrators, and others? Much of the training of such people is at the graduate level. The NCA project colleges having graduate programs have given major attention to the needs of the classroom teachers.
4. Are certification requirements being developed and revised in such a way as to encourage the highest possible standards in teacher education? There still seems to be a need for systematic study of the question posed above. It is important; and

the answer to it should be sought by the teacher education institutions.

5. How can the library function more effectively in teacher education? The library has come in for only incidental treatment in the studies developed during the NCA project. Perhaps this is because library services are at a relatively high level of effectiveness in these institutions.
6. How can college faculties play a significant role in the recruitment, training, and placement of college teachers? What might those now teaching in our colleges do to encourage able young people to consider college teaching as a career? It is probably safe to say, however, that the self-study activities engaged in by teacher-education faculties do help retain effective young teachers.
7. How can teacher education institutions develop more effective programs of public relations? In the report of the 1955 workshop (8:71-75) there is a good brief summary of the nature, purposes, and methods of public relations work in teacher education. The popular press and magazines continue to carry articles which illustrate the magnitude of the problem of bringing the public up-to-date on what has happened in teacher education.
8. How can teacher education institutions develop more effective ways to utilize the talents of their students? It has been shown that colleges find students willing and able to make significant contributions to institutional study and improvement. There is great need for systematic study of student participation in the improvement of teacher education.

EVALUATION OF THE NCA PROJECT

At the end of the first four years of this inter-college project, a special "workshop" (9) was held to evaluate its achievements and chart its future. In 1953, one year later, at the annual meeting of the North Central Association, a panel session was held (10) on the purposes, procedures, and values of the NCA project. On that occasion President E. Jonas, of Black Hills Teachers College, reported a study of the reactions of twenty presidents of participating colleges to questions regarding the cooperative project. At the annual workshops a regular feature has been the workshop evaluation prepared by a special committee, but involving all participants. These evaluations have been included in the annual workshop proceedings. At the meetings of the Sub-committee on Institutions for Teacher Education much time and attention have been given to

questions regarding the evaluation and improvement of the project. Such an enterprise as this could not continue long without emphasis on self-evaluation. What have been the findings of these various efforts at assessing the outcomes and improving the services of the NCA project?

1. A strong continuing emphasis that could be characterized as "self-critical" is essential in such a project as this. Such an emphasis seems to be achieved mainly by the selection of persons to exercise leadership in the project who already have such a conviction. Experience in an inter-college cooperative project also strengthens such an attitude.
2. Implementation of the self-critical attitude is not easy. It takes alertness, the widest possible opportunity for the member colleges to express themselves, and periodic special efforts such as those mentioned in the opening paragraph of this section.
3. One of the greatest difficulties in evaluating an inter-college project is the complexity of the forces which impinge upon the modern college. This is why, in this volume (7) one will find repeated cautions against assuming that the NCA project alone has brought about some desirable change. It is essential that any regional cooperative effort adapt its procedures and encourage its participants to make the fullest use of state, regional, and national groups also seeking to improve higher education.
4. Evaluation of a cooperative project among colleges must involve also evaluation on the part of the faculties of the participating colleges. Participating faculties need seriously to assess their participation in such a project. Probably the most serious effort of this kind was engaged in by the faculty of the State Teachers College, Winona, Minnesota (11).
5. While there may be too great a tendency to excuse weaknesses in education as being due to lack of money, there is little doubt that financial considerations determine the activities and outcomes of a cooperative project. The Committee has seen these in connection with its own work. The promotion of continuing research projects, of more extensive inter-visitation of faculties, of more special-interest conferences, of better consultation services, and the like, has been handicapped by lack of funds. The colleges have felt the effects of financial restrictions in paying the costs of summer workshop members, in engaging consultative services, and the like.
6. This NCA project needs a thorough-going general research study evaluating the work of the past eight years. A study of this type in 1951 (5) was done by Anne C. Greve for the NCA project in liberal arts education. It would be desirable in the

teacher education project that a representative committee from the participating colleges direct such an inquiry.

With the above six generalizations as a background, let us now look at the outcomes of the NCA project. The following list is admittedly subjective. This has been prepared by one who has been close to this project since its inception.

1. The inter-college, cooperative character of this project has provided a number of colleges with methods by which they could organize the faculty to effect changes in the college program.

As one college president expressed it, "The NCA project came at an opportune time to give us a good reason for re-organizing the faculty for a program of self-study." In a deeper sense, through the group processes employed in the workshops in particular, the NCA project has provided experiences which have enabled professors to return to their campuses with new skills in group work. Faculty groups have thus benefited directly in the area of their organization and methods of work.

2. The NCA project has made a major contribution by helping college faculties to become better acquainted with what others are doing and by providing them with the means to match their ideas with those of other faculties.

The conferences, workshops, packet exchanges, visitations, coordinator visits—all the activities of the project—have stressed interchange of ideas and information. Perhaps this has been, and continues to be, the major contribution of an organized cooperative project. The testimony of the colleges has repeatedly been that this is a major outcome of inter-college cooperation.

3. The NCA project, by its consistent emphasis upon self-evaluation, has provided both a convenient reason for self-evaluation by the colleges and some of the assistance needed to carry out the evaluations which the faculties have deemed necessary.

This is not to say that a good deal of "soul-searching" had not gone on in the colleges before the inception of the NCA project; but, in some instances at least,

the project was definitely used as a means to effect studies that otherwise might not have been made.

4. For a college to become involved in a cooperative project that encourages an experimental attitude toward anything the college does, helps to create an atmosphere which, on the one hand gives greater security to those on the staff who have fresh ideas and, on the other, tends to "remove old barriers of the mind."

The president who spoke of the "risk of encouraging the trouble makers" laughed as he did so. He was referring to experimentally-minded members of his staff whom he wanted to encourage. He was willing to take the risk involved because they would be bound to stir up some differences of opinion. The interchange between those whom he referred to as "emotionally susceptible to change" and the "honest skeptics" produced, in his opinion, some definite improvements in his college. The arch-conservatives, of course, may or may not become involved.

5. From its beginning the project has emphasized the inter-departmental character of many colleges' problems. This viewpoint was not original with this project, but, in its practice, has had a definite effect upon the thinking of many college professors.

While the NCA project has encouraged the inter-departmental viewpoint, actually this has been easy to do. When a group of professors take a serious look at the needs of their college they invariably find that many problems can be solved only if the broad view of the college is taken.

6. The project has contributed to the development of more effective ways of getting things done on the local campus. There has always been the problem, once a faculty study group arrived at some conclusions, of finding ways of putting these into effect. The project has provided the means whereby colleges have exchanged ideas and developed new approaches to the problem of implementation.

The president who said "Many a good project has died on the president's desk" was giving one example of the character of this problem; but, this is not the whole problem by any means. Local coordinating

committees in the NCA project have worked long and hard to find ways by which recommendations could be sifted, responsibility for action allocated, and action secured where possible.

7. The project has helped to develop greater pride among college faculties in the worth of higher education and in the significance of teacher education.

One of the most common expressions from faculty members, project coordinators and others who have been deeply involved in the NCA project is the statement, "I have been proud to have been a part of this program." Deeper yet in its significance is the lift given to the faculty member who feels that through his efforts his college has become a better institution. Not all college professors have always regarded participation in the education of teachers as an entirely respectable activity; they would rather be identified as a "professor of mathematics (or any other subject)" than as a "teacher-educator." This is not the place to explore this phenomenon in detail; it is all too familiar. In the NCA project, however, many professors have caught a new insight into the vast importance of doing a quality job of educating teachers for the elementary and secondary schools.

These seven conclusions do not cover many varieties of personal experience. The formation of new friendships, the discovery of a new book, the creative experience of developing a new idea—these and many other experiences have been the lot of summer workshopppers, conference-goers, study-group workers, and others in this NCA program.

FUTURE OF THE PROJECT

It is quite probable that this cooperative project in teacher education will continue indefinitely so long as it keeps pace with the needs of member colleges. Changes have come in the past eight years. The large regional conference has given way to the small, special-interest conference. Teams from each of three of the colleges in the spring and fall of 1956

spent two or three days on each other's campuses getting a first-hand, intimate view of their programs. Plans for the tenth summer workshop are bringing in new ideas for workshop emphasis. The basic services of the project continue but modifications take place as the colleges see their needs.

If, in closing one may risk the role of prophet, it would be to predict that, given the wisdom and courage that the leaders have shown in the past, the future will bring the following:

First, a continuing emphasis upon the summer workshop, small conferences, and visitations, as major stratagems in the in-service growth of faculty members.

Second, the expansion of long-term, fundamental research projects involving colleges of like interests in a more intimate relationship than ever before achieved on a regional basis.

Third, the emergence of new young leaders, with fresh ideas, who will develop more effective cooperation among colleges than has yet been dreamed of.

Fourth, the identification of financial support that will greatly aid the colleges in their efforts to involve more of their staff members in self-study programs on a local and on a regional level.

Fifth, the continued development of the North Central Association as an agency for the improvement of secondary and higher education. As time goes on projects such as the one described in this volume and those sponsored by the Association among liberal arts colleges and multi-purpose universities will come into closer working relationships.

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Reports of Commission Conferences

NOTE: It is most regrettable that limited space has forced sharp abridgement of some of the excellent original reports of the conferences which considered many live issues at the Sixty-first Annual Meeting last April. In each instance an earnest effort has been made to preserve the core of the discussion. This was done, however, at the expense of many a pertinent point or illustration which would have appeared, of course, if full-length accounts could have been printed.—EDITOR

COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOLS
AFTERNOON, APRIL 12, 1956
CONFERENCE NO. I

"The White House Conference—Its implications for secondary education"

Participants

Chairman: Delmar H. Battrick, Principal, Theodore Roosevelt High School, Des Moines, Iowa.

Consultants: Mel C. Buschman, Principal, East Grand Rapids, Michigan. James H. Cherry, General Assistant Superintendent, Joliet Township High School and Junior College, Joliet, Illinois. Harry P. Cooper, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Secondary Education, Minneapolis, Minnesota. A. B. Schultz, Principal, Patrick Henry High School, Minneapolis. Truslow S. Waldo, Principal, Gauley Bridge, West Virginia.

One of the great problems of education is how to get a diversified community to arrive at sufficient consensus on educational needs to move forward. Educational change involves social engineering. It needs accurate predictions, and yet these cannot be made with conclusive accuracy. It is then, a venture into the unknown, raising perplexing complications based on social and individual insecurities.

It has been said that social engineering includes four steps:

1. An analysis of the present situation. Those who are involved in the analysis need open minds and a faith that some changes can bring improvements.
2. Determination of changes indicated by the analysis. Suggested changes must be double checked for psychological and sociological soundness.
3. Accomplishment of changes. Those who would seek change should have a clear mental picture of the change to be made as programs are initiated

to make the change a reality.

4. Stabilization of the new situation. Definite programs must be carried forward which will impart sufficient information to insure understanding and to give status to persons involved in the new situation.

Traditional methods used to effect change have often imparted information without providing adequate opportunity for response, or widespread participation. Programs designed to bring change generally are accomplished by information-giving programs employing the written and mechanically transmitted word, as in the brochure, the press, radio, and television. More limited use is made of the spoken word, such as the lecture, the symposium, or panel. Participation in planning for change has been obtained through representatives, either appointed or elected. The effectiveness of representative participation depends upon the degree to which the community power structure is involved. Where involvement of large numbers is attempted, mass meetings are often the means used. These are too frequently poorly attended and great difficulty is experienced in two-way communications.

The growth of the United States from a sparsely to a thickly populated nation has posed additional problems in making effective democratic action possible. The town hall procedures do not adapt themselves readily to large masses of people. The prevailing modes of gaining unified action by large numbers of people referred to above lend themselves readily to coercion, compromise, exploitation, or excommunication techniques. All of these are inconsistent with principles of democracy.

A central consideration, then, is how to get mass movement through democratic cooperation with built-in procedures that are acceptable to and consistent with democracy. At least three rather basic factors must be inherent:

1. Those who are to live by a decision should be

involved in making it.

2. There should be an atmosphere of mutual respect of personalities, abilities, and contributions.
3. There should be opportunity for all to contribute ideas and to test those ideas against the points of view of other participants.

Unless these principles of democratic procedure are protected, a proposal for change often flounders on mistrust and disinterest.

The White House Conference procedure was planned to take into account some of the handicaps of more traditional methods leading to group action. Although it was a representative group, participants were brought together in a situation designed with the hope that the three principles mentioned above would obtain.

It is probably too early to attempt to assess the significance of the group procedures used at the White House Conference, or to predict with accuracy their applicability to the local or state situations. The procedure does make it possible for masses of people to make common, joint decisions. Several basic principles of democratic procedure are inherent in the processes used. The processes should be studied carefully by school people at local and state levels with a view toward their use when large numbers of people are faced with the necessity of making decisions on public policy.

The panel closed its discussion with reports of conferences modeled after the White House Conference and dealing with important issues in Grand Rapids and Minneapolis. Mr. Buschman presented the former and Mr. Schultz, the latter.

CONFERENCE NO. 2

"Education for world understanding"

Participants

Chairman: LeRoy Ludeman, Principal, Central High School, Aberdeen, South Dakota.

Consultants: H. D. Karns, Principal, Junction City, Kansas. Jacob Van Ek, Dean, College of Arts and Sciences, University of Colorado, Boulder. C. M. Sharp, Principal, Thomas Carr Howe High School, Indianapolis, Indiana. H. L. Richards, Principal, Community High School, Blue Island, Illinois. Wendell L. Greer, Principal, Boulder, Colorado.

Mr. Richards outlined the problem by calling attention to the fact that, in spite of efforts on the part of the United States, through its government and other agencies, to aid other countries in the solution of their problems and to further world understanding our representatives in other countries are not welcome. Moreover, there are signs that our motives may at times be misunderstood.

He suggested that the schools of our country can make a contribution to international understanding by basing their programs in this field upon the following principles or concepts:

1. An understanding of human rights. It should be remembered that different peoples may have different concepts of individual rights but that the existence of individual rights and liberties depends upon mutual respect and acceptance of these rights by the peoples of various countries.
2. An understanding of the geographical and cultural backgrounds of different peoples and countries. These geographical and cultural backgrounds account, in part, for the different ways in which peoples approach their problems, for the differences in speech, for differences in ideas about the place of various institutions in society and for differences in traditions.
3. An understanding of the value, the place, and the use of compromise. The need for greater international understanding arises because of differences which exist between peoples of the nations. Compromise seeks to lessen these differences without sacrifice of fundamental principles by finding areas of agreement which can be reached on the basis of a fusing of the basic guiding principles of different peoples.
4. The schools' programs of education for world understanding must be aimed at the minds and hearts of children. These programs must be couched in terms that can be understood, and are meaningful to, children of school age. They must not be legalistic or materialistic in concept; but rather in terms of the building of a world in which future generations of human beings can live in peace and mutual understanding.

Mr. Richards terminated his remarks by pointing out that if any new program of education for world understanding is to succeed, it should and must be based on the first and foremost ideal, the great Christian doctrine of Love. To do this we can find no more simple and effective guide than the love passage from the letters of St. Paul, which he read as his conclusion.

Mr. Greer detailed how social studies can be utilized to develop better understanding of races, religions, governments, and customs other than our own; foreign languages, to gain insight into the hopes and aspirations as these are recorded in the literature of other peoples; and the natural sciences, to comprehend the concern of other races about food and health. Neither must organized activities be disregarded, said he, because they provide an informal approach to the development of world understanding.

Mr. Karns pointed to the attainment of peace as the aim of education for world understanding in which the need for political reforms and economic stability must not be lost sight of. He indicated that some communities have unique resources for developing such understanding and cited the children of the families of the First Division of the United States Army with headquarters at Junction City, his home town. This Division saw service in both Europe and Asia and some of its children were born there. They not only study and play with local children but are effective interpreters of foreign cultures as well.

Mr. Sharp highlighted the need for keeping the community well informed about the aims of education for world understanding, lest the citizens and even the press misinterpret them.

CONFERENCE NO. 3

"The teaching of moral and spiritual values in public secondary schools"

Participants

Chairman: Albert C. May, Principal, Steubenville, Ohio.

Recorder: John F. Sullivan, S. J., Principal, University of Detroit High School, Detroit, Michigan.

Consultants: J. E. McAdam, Director, University School, Iowa City, Iowa. Guy Waid, Principal, Carlsbad, New Mexico.

NOTE: To preserve the unity of Fr. Sullivan's report of this pervasive problem, his account is printed in full.—EDITOR.

PROCEDURE

Having introduced the members of the

panel and outlined the importance and history of the topic under discussion, Mr. May called upon Mr. McAdam to present a definition of the terms involved and to indicate some of the values concerned.

A. Definition and scope

Mr. McAdam called attention to the fact that renewed emphasis had been given to the consideration of moral and spiritual values in the public schools by the study of the Educational Policy Commission of the National Educational Association which was published in 1951. It was his judgment that the definition prepared by that Commission was accurate and could, therefore, be accepted by the panel for purposes of discussion. "By moral and spiritual values," the Commission stated, "we mean those values which, when applied in human behavior, exalt and refine life and bring it in accord with the standards of conduct that are approved in our democratic culture." Mr. McAdam then proceeded to enumerate some of the values which could, and should, be inculcated in public school students:

1. Importance of human personality—the basic value.
2. Moral responsibility.
3. Institutions as the servants of men.
4. Cooperation—resulting from common consent rather than coercion.
5. Devotion to truth.
6. Respect for excellence—in the persons and achievements of others.
7. Moral equality—whereby all are judged by the same standards.
8. Brotherhood—the antithesis of selfishness.
9. The pursuit of happiness.
10. Honesty—in workmanship and in all dealings with others.
11. Clean speech, thought, and conduct.

Basis Assumptions.—Mr. McAdam proposed three basic assumptions as the starting point for any discussion of moral and spiritual values. First, since the time of the founding fathers the American people have been committed to the pursuit of these values; this is amply manifested in the basic documents of our democracy such as the preamble to the Declaration of Independence, and the Constitution. Secondly, the American

people expect these values to be developed in the students in the public schools. Finally, real social development cannot be achieved without the improvement of the individuals who constitute society. Hence, the inculcation of these values should be the continued objective of guidance programs, classroom instruction, and extra-curricular activities.

Discussion.—At the conclusion of the above presentation a question was raised concerning the definition of spiritual values. The definition given, it was said, seemed to describe the *outcomes* of spiritual values rather than to state the *nature* of these values in themselves. The matter was referred to Father Sullivan for possible clarification. A "moral value," he stated, is a norm, or standard, of human behavior against which the actions of men can be measured and found to be good or bad according as they conform to, or deviate from, that standard. The expression "spiritual value" seems to have two meanings. In a wide sense, it means anything which exalts, refines, and satisfies the mind and will of man, the human spirit; such things are literature, art, music, architecture, etc. In a strict sense, in the sense in which the term would seem to be understood by people in general, "spiritual values" are all those things which constitute a man's relation with God: recognition, reverence, worship of a Supreme Being. When the term is taken in this sense, it is obvious that the public schools cannot teach the spiritual values which are *specific* of, and peculiar to, any definite religious group. On the other hand, they can and should inculcate those spiritual values which are universally accepted by all religious groups and which are a definite part of our American heritage—namely, recognition of the existence of God and reverence for Him as a Father to whom we are accountable for our actions.

B. *Methods of Teaching Spiritual and Moral Values*

In his presentation Mr. Waid noted that these values are largely a matter of right

attitudes, of habits of right thought and action. Attitudes are chiefly acquired from environment by way of imitation. They are not generally the outcome of direct instruction, but are acquired incidentally from one's environment through the universal human process of imitation. If, then, they are to be taught to students in public schools, experiences should be arranged and planned according to a definite program whereby the boys and girls will be able, not only to learn the values, but especially to reduce them to practice. This means that the teachers and administrators with whom they come in contact must give them the proper example and set for them the desirable pattern. Instruction in moral equality, for example, will avail little if, by his actions, a teacher clearly manifests that he prefers one group or has little understanding of another. The successful teaching of moral and spiritual values, then, will involve little preaching, but much experience in the proper situation.

Discussion.—A general question concerning the basis for honesty was, by discussion, reduced to a specific consideration of cheating. It was stated that an anonymous questionnaire in a certain school revealed that most of the students, at one time or another, cheat with respect to their school work. Especially difficult of solution was the problem of a boy who inquired whether it would be dishonest to assist another student in an examination when it is obvious that the latter was hopelessly lost and, through failure, would get no credit for the course. It was observed that such questions are extremely difficult to answer on the basis of a philosophy of relativism because, in accord with that philosophy, when cheating becomes common practice it ceases to be wrong or immoral. Such a situation could be obviated only in a system of absolute values. A member of the panel called attention to a recent college study of the matter of cheating in which the conclusion was reached that much cheating stems from an over-emphasis on marks. The use of older or more talented students

as voluntary tutors for the less capable students was suggested as a probably effective means of diminishing this undesirable conduct.

C. Inauguration of a Program for Teaching Spiritual and Moral Values

Mr. Myers outlined the initial steps which were taken to set up a program for teaching moral and spiritual values at Mishawaka High School. At first, the matter was approached with some hesitancy since the values seemed to be those which traditionally were proper to the home and the church. A consultation with the faculty, however, made it amply clear that they were heartily in favor of the program since they considered that they owed this assistance to the community in such an important matter. The first step was the establishment of a faculty committee to study methods of procedure. The committee logically recommended that the initial move should be an inventory, or investigation, of existing practices in the school concerning the teaching of moral and spiritual values. Accordingly, questionnaires were circulated among the faculty moderators of school activities in which they were requested to list the moral and spiritual values which were emphasized or inherent in those activities. Similarly, questionnaires were distributed to the heads of departments who were asked to examine the contents of the various courses and methods of teaching them for the purpose of listing the moral and spiritual values which were already being inculcated. The results were quite pleasantly surprising since it was discovered that much was already being done in this matter, both formally and incidentally. The work now at hand consists in making the faculty members increasingly aware that these values should be constant objectives of their teaching and in extending the program. Although the inventory indicated that much has already been done, it also manifested that much more can be done.

D. Moral and Spiritual Values which Are Inherent in a Citizenship Education Program

In accord with his conviction that moral and spiritual attitudes can be inculcated concurrently with other instructional material, Mr. Waid adduced three examples in which he believed this was achieved. The first involved a ninth grade social studies group which undertook to urge members of the community to vote at the time of a presidential election. When asked what he had learned from his experience, one of the boys replied, "I learned that I am going to vote when I am able to do so." This value was, as it were, a by-product of his patriotic effort to get others to vote. The second example concerned a biology class which was studying community health and which investigated garbage disposal in a small town. As a result of their research they unearthed some interesting information, but, above all, in their own words, they learned that "Every citizen has a responsibility to make his town a better place in which to live." This experience certainly provided them with practical experience in the moral value of individual responsibility. Finally, there were social studies classes from two schools of different racial backgrounds which investigated the racial problem which existed at a local swimming pool. Although they were not able to solve the problem, they said that as a result of their consultations, they had "acquired a better understanding and respect for each other." A greater appreciation of moral equality and an understanding of brotherhood was the indirect result of this effort to promote better community relations.

E. General Discussion Topics

(1) In response to a question concerning the most effective means to attain proper and decent dress among the students it was suggested, as a procedure already tried and found successful, that a "personality improvement contest" be inaugurated. The group disapproval which

resulted was too much even for the most rabid addict of blue jeans and sloppy dress.

(2) It was observed that educators should make every effort to be scrupulously impartial and fair in dealing with different social groups in a school. They should carefully and continuously examine their consciences in this matter lest much of the unsocial behavior on the part of students should be compensatory for unequal treatment.

(3) Attention was called to the necessity of enlisting the cooperation not only of the faculty, but also of the students, in the establishment of a program for the teaching of moral and spiritual values. The inclusion of the students in the determination of the scope of the values and their implementation in the school program will be an exercise in functional democracy and will result in some important practical conclusions.

(4) A question was raised concerning the possible conflict which could arise in the minds of students who learn an absolute standard for spiritual values at home and at church and who find the same values presented on a pragmatic basis at school.

(5) A show of hands was requested concerning the number of schools among those represented which permitted "released time" for religious instruction. The number was relatively small, but the judgment of those who had it concerning its acceptability and effectiveness was very favorable.

(6) There was some discussion concerning the value of student participation in the determination of school policy and procedure. It was observed that democratic procedure requires an informed constituency and that students are not adequately informed concerning many of the issues upon which they are consulted. They seek rather guidance from their elders than consultation as among peers. In reply to this position it was stated that the extent to which democratic procedure is used depends upon the maturity level of the students.

F. Cooperation of Other Agencies in the Teaching of Moral and Spiritual Values.

Having been requested to present this aspect of the problem, Father Sullivan said that the home and the church were not only the primary, but also the most effective, agencies for the teaching of such values. The school, however, must supplement and assist these two lest, by avoiding or ignoring them, they should create in the mind of children the impression that they are unimportant or fictional. Moreover, parents who themselves have had little instruction in them are incapable of teaching them to their children, and churches, which do not always have the regular and full attendance which schools enjoy by law, do not have access to the large segment of the population which the schools have.

Nor should we overlook, he said, the fact that there are other agencies which have powerful influence in determining the moral and spiritual values of our youth. These agencies are the television, the motion pictures, the newspapers, and the magazines—including the so called "comic books." The influence of these media is, as we know, wide-spread and powerful. They must be watched lest, in the pursuit of financial gain, they subvert the moral and spiritual values which are necessary for the proper development of a human being, which are traditional in our nation, and which are required if a democracy is to persevere and prosper.

CONFERENCE NO. 4

"Organizing a school system for 'self evaluation' "

Participants

Chairman: J. B. Johnson, Superintendent, Niantic-Harristown High School, Niantic, Illinois
Recorder: Warren L. Evenson, Principal, Central High School, Fargo, North Dakota.
Consultants: James C. Balten, Principal, Allen Park, Michigan. Lawrence W. Hanson, Principal, Central High School, Grand Forks, North Dakota. S. M. Hickman, Principal, East High School, Sioux City, Iowa. Rex K. John, Principal, Lincoln High School, Manitowoc, Wisconsin.

Lawrence W. Hanson, Grand Forks,

North Dakota, presented the following points regarding the objectives of a self-study program:

I. Objective.

The prime objective of a self-evaluation program is "How are we doing?"

Is it meeting the needs of students attending the schools?

Is it meeting the needs of the particular community in which it is located?

II. The study will need to know these facts.

A. Community Situation.

1. Kind of community—rural, urban.
2. Economic status of citizens.
3. Percentage of graduates who go to college.
4. Percentage of graduates who terminate their education upon graduation.
5. Percentage of drop-outs. What happens to drop-outs?
6. Job opportunities in community.

B. Curriculum.

1. Is curriculum geared to the kind of education which the community situation demands?
2. How effectively is the training given meeting the needs of its pupils? (College failures, unsatisfactory job placements, etc.)
3. Is curriculum and instruction being changed to keep pace with the rapidly changing society, jobs, social demands?
4. Are students satisfied with the training received?

C. Personnel.

1. Are schools staffed with trained, competent teachers?
2. Is teacher load reasonable?
3. Are teachers happy in their work?

D. Buildings.

1. Are buildings adequate for the enrollment?
2. Is the future growth of the community being considered and plans made to keep abreast of the enrollment?
3. Is modernizing program being conducted so facilities are up-to-date?

E. School Philosophy.

1. Does the school have a definite philosophy of education which serves as a guide to its total program?
2. Is the community aware of this philosophy and supporting it actively?

J. B. Johnson presented the following points on the most likely problems the administration and a faculty might face in a program of self-study.

I. Information.

The first problem is to get everyone thoroughly informed. No one can appreciate something which he does not understand. Get full information to all participants and to public as to plan and objectives.

How? By meetings, group conferences, bulletins, and press.

Public Relations—"Living right and getting credit for it."

II. Cooperation and Team Work.

Form a team. Greatest benefits derived are results of working together—working together tends to draw people together. (Involve as many people as practicable.)

Married couples advised to "Do things together."

III. Timing.

Set up goals. Set deadline for climax. Drive toward that date and goal—like a big football game.

IV. Selecting and appointing.

Select chairman carefully. Include staff, board, parents, pupils.

V. Coordination.

Some one must be coordinator. Coordinate all committees. Tie the team together. Do not allow groups or committees to waste effort in head-on-collision.

VI. Conclusion.

Suggest Climax—Dinner meeting.

Rex K. John, Manitowoc, Wisconsin, suggested a plan of organization and procedures which could be recommended for a self-study program. After a review of the purposes of self-evaluation the following points were made:

I. Methods or Instruments that can be used.

1. Forms prepared by publishing houses.
 2. Forms prepared by public or semi-public agencies—State Departments, NASP; U. S. Office of Education.
 3. By comparison with neighboring schools.
 4. Under leadership of visiting consultant.
- In all foregoing methods, the plan of organization is somewhat similar.

II. Use the services of the North Central Association.

A. Advantage—Reviewing Committee serves as stimulant for committee work.

B. Outside opinion is valuable.

III. Preliminaries in organizing the staff.

A. Sell the idea to the staff. This is of utmost importance for cooperation of staff is essential.

1. Advantages to the student.

2. Advantages to the teacher.

3. Advantages to the community.

B. Project is one of constructive assistance.

1. Any criticism will be constructive in nature.

2. Not in any sense a "snooping" expedition.

C. Committees.

1. Two types—broad field and subject.

2. Every teacher a member of two committees.
3. Representative citizens should be included.
- D. Reviewing Committee.
 1. Functions.
 2. Make-up.
- IV. Organization of the staff.
 - A. Begin year before Reviewing Committee appears.
Use self-evaluation blanks—American Council on Education.
 - B. Committees.
 1. Steering—Composed of heads of departments and administration officials.
 2. Broad fields—cross section of staff and citizens.
 - Pupil population and community.
 - Educational Needs of Youth.
 - Program of studies.
 - Pupil Activity Program.
 - Library Services.
 - Guidance Services.
 - School Plant.
 - Staff and Administration.
 3. Subject fields—Composed of teachers in a department—English, Mathematics, Business Education Science, and community representatives.
 4. Committee reports represent composite view of the group.
 5. Committee reports presented to entire staff for approval. Include residents of community.
 - C. Have blanks completed just prior to review by members of teaching staff.
- V. Follow-up.
 - A. Oral report of Review Committee.
 - B. Written report of Reviewing Committee.
 - C. Referral to appropriate Staff Committees.
 - D. Recommendations of Staff Committees.
 - E. Decision of Staff.
- VI. Values derived.
 - A. Appreciation of North Central as an organization.
 - B. Recognition of strengths and weaknesses in our instructional program.
 - C. Help in securing building improvements.
 - D. Realization that cooperative effort by fellow school people in appraisal of our school had definite merit; that committees' findings were valid; and that the evaluation pointed the direction the school staff should take to achieve the goal of meeting the needs of the youth in our community.

James J. Balten, Allen Park, Michigan, presented points regarding how a self-study program can check on effectiveness in improving the over-all school program.

- I. The biggest improvement to the over-all school

program comes through the establishment of a worked and reworked philosophy arrived at after the individuals concerned have verbally sparred, counter-punched, argued, given, taken, accused, and been accused.

- II. A compilation of weakness as surveyed is of second importance.
- III. A study of graduates and drop-outs can offer much support to curriculum committees.
- IV. Problems will arise which can be identified for use in the "In-Service" program; such as, review of homeroom teachers role vs. the counselors role.
- V. The unity of purpose and cohesion attained by faculty will result in better teaching results in the future.

S. M. Hickman, Sioux City, Iowa, and Mr. Warren Evenson, Fargo, North Dakota, asked questions which served as discussion stimulators. The questions asked included "How can we provide teachers time to work on evaluation?" and "How does the principal explain the purposes of many of the questions which appear on standard evaluative forms?"

CONFERENCE NO. 5

"Doing something about teacher supply"

Participants

Chairman: L. M. Ellingson, Principal, Faribault, Minnesota.

Recorder: Glen O. Ream, Principal, Albuquerque, New Mexico.

Consultants: Albert H. Gullikson, Principal, Jamestown, North Dakota. Don Manlove, Principal, Richmond, Indiana. E. Paul Seydel, Principal, Senior High School and Junior College, Fort Dodge, Iowa.

To keep the discussion of this important and timely topic within bounds, it was agreed to limit the presentation to four essential themes—Recruitment of New Teachers, Teacher Training Institutions, Retention of Teachers Already in Service, Responsibility of Lay Groups.

Chairman Ellingson's presentation of the problem to a large and keenly interested group was accomplished in excellent fashion. Although the implication of the general topic is apparent, Mr. Ellingson brought the situation into sharp focus by means of numerous references to current publications.

Mr. Manlove followed with a presentation of current recruitment practices. He offered two basic philosophies: (1) Recruitment falls upon individuals who are primarily interested in schools; namely, classroom teachers, administrators and boards of education, (2) Administrators must imbue their co-workers with "the importance of the teaching profession . . . and thereby possibly eliminate the problem in one decade."

Touching on exploratory teaching at the high school level, Mr. Manlove suggests three effective activities: Future Teacher Chapters, Cadet Teaching Clubs, and high school classes on a curricular basis. In expanding the third activity, the speaker described the Richmond, Indiana, plan which offers seniors a credit course which provides actual experience in elementary classrooms.

Mr. Ream introduced the sub-topic, "Teacher Training Institutions." The importance of training teachers to do effective teaching is well established. Inspired instruction on the college level requires an intimate knowledge of the problems existing in elementary and secondary classrooms. The college teacher can not isolate himself. Theories are essential but must be simplified in order to be useful in actual practice.

Despite the established importance of teacher training institutions, however, frequent criticisms appear to confuse prospective teachers. "Educationists" are accused of vesting themselves with a strangle hold upon teachers and thereby increasing their monopoly, authority—and fees, for service rendered. Courses in pedagogy are labeled as useless and unnecessary. Needless to say, such criticisms are false, yet the impact of repeated publicity of this sort tends to divert potential teachers, and good ones, into other fields.

Mr. Gullikson developed the topic, "Retention of Teachers," by means of a series of questions. Some of the most pertinent questions which administrators might direct to themselves are:

- a. Do we provide sensible security and social recognition for teachers?
- b. Do we provide opportunities for professional growth?
- c. Do we provide salaries adequate and equal to other professions?
- d. Do we provide adequate facilities?
- e. Do we provide democratic administration?
- f. Do we help new teachers?
- g. Do we practice patience and understanding?

Naturally, the underlying objective of the entire school program is the welfare and progress of the boys and girls who are under our guidance. Effective teaching can scarcely result from a discontented and disturbed faculty. Only when such questions as those proposed above can be answered satisfactorily can we retain good teachers.

Mr. Seydel concluded the presentation of the general theme with a discussion of "Lay Group Responsibility." He suggested that we develop "a new slant on getting aid from the citizenry"—lay groups can help in many ways:

1. Citizens can support legislation. In this respect, the need for improved teaching of children is emphasized.
2. Raising of standards is important. Citizens should realize that better teaching results when standards are kept high. The raising of standards, contrary to opinion, may provide more, rather than fewer teachers.
3. Legislatures need to revise their viewpoints regarding education.
4. Lay groups can finance publications for both adults and pupils aimed at boosting the teaching profession. Publications of this nature are more effective when they originate from lay groups.
5. Scholarships for prospective teachers would add incentive.
6. Citizens' advisory committees would provide an excellent background for spreading sentiment in favor of entering the teaching profession.

Following Mr. Seydel's presentation, Mr. Ellingson opened the session to a spirited discussion which brought out numerous suggestions and questions.

CONFERENCE NO. 6

"How to use citizens' lay committees effectively in educational planning"

Participants

Chairman: F. R. Born, Director of Secondary Edu-

cation, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

Recorder: Ross A. Wagner, Principal, Birmingham, Michigan.

Consultants: Judson S. Erne, Principal, Columbus, Indiana. Robert C. Grant, Principal, Community High School, Watseka, Illinois. Donald Roe, Principal, Cleveland Heights, Ohio.

The discussion centered around the following areas: (1) What are lay committees and what are their functions? (2) The need for the development of some basic concepts in the development of lay committees; (3) How do you work with lay committees? (4) Different patterns of organization of lay committees; (5) Discussions of some specific patterns of operation in different schools.

In the consideration of what constitutes lay committees, it was pretty well agreed that lay committees provide a medium through which the school and the community work together in the development of basic understandings in providing the educational experiences for young people. It seemed to be the opinion that the larger a school system becomes, the greater the need for such committees. This does not mean that lay committees are not important even in small school systems; however, the degree to which the participation of such committees becomes important increases as the school system grows in size. In order for a program of lay committees to operate effectively, it is necessary that certain basic concepts be developed. Some of the most important are:

1. The schools belong to the layman.
2. There is a distinct difference between understanding the educational program and selling the educational program. Lay committees do not exist just to sell to the public the program that the educator conceives, but rather the real function of lay committees lies in the opportunities which they present for giving the educator an opportunity to integrate lay thinking and lay understanding with that of the professional educator, and by so doing develops among the lay public a better understanding of the philosophy and the objectives of the school.
3. Another basic concept is that with the understanding which is developed on the part of the lay people comes a genuine support for the schools; and the providing of financial support,

facilities, and other educational needs becomes much easier with the public understanding the needs.

4. Still another concept of lay committees is that they provide the means of keeping abreast with the rapid changes that take place in many communities.

In consideration of how to work with lay committees, a variety of patterns was indicated. In a number of situations these committees are organized by the school board through the superintendent, and certain board of education representation is present on the committees. In other instances committees are organized through the medium of the P.T.A., with the P.T.A. providing the steering committees for the project, with the actual personnel of the working committees being made up of outstanding people in all the various areas of the school district irrespective of membership in the P.T.A. In such instances the P.T.A. steering committees serve as the integrating group where they handle the publicity, analyze reports, consolidate reports, and report to the board of education.

Still a third method is what is sometimes referred to as the "broken front" approach in which each school in the system organizes its own committees to work on various projects appropriate to that particular school.

Based upon these different considerations, much of the time of the panel was spent on a discussion of programs of operation in the different schools represented on the panel. Probably all aspects of the methods indicated above were in evidence in these different schools. The following basic conclusions can be drawn from the total discussion:

1. Lay committees should be formed to do a specific job. When that job is completed the committees should be disbanded.
2. Every effort should be made to see that all areas and all interests of the school district are represented on the committee.
3. Citizens cannot usurp the powers of the board of education, but the board of education may go to the citizens and ask for help on any data. Citizens' committees do not constitute policy-making bodies. This function must be retained by the board of education, but the lay committees

can recommend policies and procedures for the consideration of the board of education.

4. Programs of lay participation need to be carefully planned and developed. Such a program should develop gradually and to the extent that the administration of the school can effectively work with the groups.

COMMISSION ON RESEARCH AND SERVICE
EVENING, APRIL 11, 1956
CONFERENCE NO. I

"How can the high school meet its responsibilities to nonacademic students?"

Participants

Chairman: Stephen A. Romine, Associate Professor of Education, University of Colorado, Boulder.

Recorder: Floyd L. Simmons, Principal, East High School, Cleveland, Ohio.

Consultants: Dorothy L. Dunn, Dean of Women, J. Sterling Morton High School and Junior College, Cicero, Illinois. Mary Hilton, Adjustment Teacher, Tilden Technical High School, Chicago. Jerry L. Kelley, Visiting Counselor, New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Illinois. Kenneth N. Nickel, Vice Principal, Wichita High School West (now a member of the staff of the University of Wichita). A. R. Sansone, Principal, George Washington Carver School, Chicago.

In his introductory remarks, Mr. Romine said in part:

Look at it any way you please, we cannot promote effective education by giving identical doses of learning to all students. Gastronomic distress of an educational nature is certain to result, in fact, has resulted and continues to prevail, from such practices. Sometimes the result is down-right educational indigestion. This sort of illness is very costly for its ill effects often outlive the disease itself, and both the individual and society continue to pay and pay because of it.

We cannot afford to neglect any segment of our school population in our effort to educate all the children of all the people. Too often, and perhaps for understandable if not sound reasons, we have aimed at the middle ranges of ability thereby neglecting both the more able and the less able. This is one of the major problems of mass education and the concept of the equality of educational opportunity. Such a practice frequently re-

tards the one group of students while it discourages the other. Nor do the results assure us that it is the best we can do for the great middle group.

Our panel members are to deal with one large group of students influenced by this situation—nonacademic. So that we may have some common agreement as to what a nonacademic student is, the following definition has been proposed by Kenneth Nickel:

Nonacademic students are those who fail to learn effectively through teaching procedures involving language, symbols, abstractions, and general verbal principles which are prevalent in typical high school classes. This classification includes not only those with low intellectual ability but also those with more ability who do not learn because of lack of interest, poor reading ability, emotional blocks, and poor cultural background. These students are characterized by lack of purpose, disinterest, poor powers of concentration, incapability of abstract reasoning, and poor study habits. Many are unable to comprehend and follow directions, are easily distracted and are motivated chiefly by concrete experiences and very short term interests.

Not all of these characteristics pertain to each and every nonacademic student. But they do help to identify a large group of individuals who not only fail to profit as they should, but whose lack of educational success often influences adversely our efforts with other high school students.

Mr. Kelley stated that the nonacademic students fall into two categories: those of low natural academic ability who could be considered, in a sense, permanent non-academics; and those with academic ability but without academic achievement. These are the more numerous of the two and usually require individual consideration, not necessarily including a psychological examination. It is important to get as accurate a picture as possible of the reasons for lack of achievement.

Miss Dunn dealt with the counseling phase of the nonacademic problem, especially as it concerns girls. The following paragraphs are quoted from her comments.

We have agreed on our definition of nonacademic; however, I would like to add that according to the U. S. Employment Service, Department of Labor,

a general intelligence quotient of 80 or a rank in the sixteenth percentile of the general working population should also be considered in the definition of this group. I need now only define those terms which apply to counseling. I'd like to say that I believe in eclectic counseling; i.e. that we should employ all useful methods as they apply to the case at hand. There is a big, definite place for the directive techniques with this group who need occasionally to be told what to do and how to do it. There is also a spot for the non-directive techniques, especially in therapeutic situations involving emotional blocks.

In my philosophy of guidance I believe in the gestalt concept. We are concerned with the total development of the individual, his natural ability and his environment. This all inclusive idea puts the school counselor into a situation where he must know as much as possible about this student: his cultural background, his aptitudes and abilities, his home, community, religious affiliations, as well as his school adjustment.

To give you some idea of the implementation of this total concept of guidance in relation to non-academic youth, I have divided my thinking into three large areas: educational, vocational, and matrimonial. This last phase is of particular concern to counseling girls.

Miss Dunn then asserted that educational guidance concerns curricula and extracurricular activities. Diagnosis by means of a battery of tests affords a background—general ability (both verbal and non-verbal), achievement, and the like. Transcripts from the elementary schools should be utilized. If homogeneous grouping be the policy, students who achieve at about the 25 percentile should form their own group, especially in mathematics and English. Reading should be taught continuously with particular attention to the three final high school years. General science is helpful in meeting the science requirement. Classes in health and in good citizenship are vitally important for the nonacademic group.

Four years of industrial arts are indicated for boys. General business should be required of all. For girls, courses in home economics are invaluable for success in marriage as well as for occupational security.

Extracurricular activities help students find satisfactions not available through the curriculum—a fact of special significance to counselors.

"Vocational advice often acts as a spur to educational counseling," said Miss Dunn. She enumerated the elements necessary for effective vocational counseling and went on to cite evidence that "Many jobs of relatively high occupational status do not require more than the low general intelligence which they [the nonacademic pupils] have."

"Many of these youth are highly unrealistic about their life's work," said she.

... One of the very discouraging problems a counselor faces is to explain to a nonacademic boy that he doesn't have brains enough to be the doctor or lawyer that his dad or mother expects him to be. I might add that it is still more difficult to deflate the vocational goals that parents have set for their children. Even the wisdom of Solomon isn't sufficient here.

Miss Dunn closed her discussion of vocational guidance with a treatment of job placement as it applies to the non-academic individual in the schools.

In regard to preparation for marriage, Miss Dunn especially emphasized the need for "a liberal education as the basis for living in family and community life ... when you educate a woman you educate a family." There is evidence that "single girls who postpone marriage for some time after graduation have better emotional adjustment and more self-reliance" and that "early marriage seems to appeal more to girls with less self-reliance and maturity." If these statements are valid, they have great significance for counselors. "The nonacademic group demands our attention. The Bureau of Census found, 'In 1947, as well as earlier, that there was a consistent inverse relationship between fertility and amount of education.' "

[They demand] our attention so that they will not become delinquent and be social problems and leeches on our population. Let us hope that we can educate them on their own level, to reach their own goals, to be of service to God and mankind and be worthwhile citizens enjoying privileges and accepting the responsibilities of the free society which we all enjoy in the U.S.A.

Mrs. Hilton, speaking of the role of the teacher, opened her remarks as follows:

A large part of our problem in dealing with the non-academic pupils is the fact that they are adolescents. One of their characteristics is a rebellion against adult authority. Many of them are not interested in the opinions of their parents or teachers. They are, however, intensely interested in *themselves* and in the opinions of their peers. They have great plans for their own futures. We can take advantage of these qualities in planning classwork. They will do amazing things if they are *self-stimulated* and can exhibit their accomplishments to their fellow students.

A teacher selected for classes of these pupils must have unlimited patience and an *understanding heart*. Such a teacher will know his pupils, adapt the work to their needs, and rejoice with them in their accomplishments. He will provide experiences in which each child's talents will be given recognition.

Science and gym and health provide unusual opportunities for the employment of each child's talents on his particular level of competence. Learning the basic principles of science and of health will not be so dull to those who have participated in this manner. The non-academic pupils profit from the use of concrete materials, such as films, recordings, improved textbooks, work materials, and the like.

For the nonacademic pupil, study habits and readings require special attention. Both need remedial measures. Moreover, educational goals should be set for each semester which are specific and attainable. Accomplishment should be measured as accurately as possible so that progress can be shown.

Dr. Sansone discussed administrative procedures which will facilitate educating nonacademic pupils. He defined such pupils as those who fail to learn effectively through conventional teaching procedures involving abstractions, generalizations, symbols, and general verbal principles. They are characterized by lack of purpose, disinterest, poor powers of concentration, incapability of abstract reasoning, poor study habits, and inability to read.

He advocated ten administrative procedures as constructive aids: (1) Secure competent, interested, dedicated teachers, (2) Arouse teacher interest and facilitate a clear cut, agreed-to definition of the term "nonacademic" by the faculty, (3)

Encourage and provide opportunity for in-service study, with the curriculum as a good starting point, (4) Lead in the determination of the broad objectives of secondary education, (5) Encourage and provide opportunity to develop a flexible, varied program of offerings, (6) Encourage and provide opportunity to develop a comprehensive guidance program with the aid of specialists, school personnel, and citizens, (7) Provide the physical plant essential to the program of offerings indicated by faculty, administration, and citizens, (8) Secure adequate materials of instruction through administrative and faculty cooperation, (9) Interpret the school to its public through a comprehensive and continuous program, and (10) Encourage and help to develop a program of continuous evaluation of the effectiveness of educating both the academic and nonacademic pupils.

The speaker drew rich illustrations of the foregoing procedures from the operations of the George Washington Carver School of which he is the administrative head.

Mr. Nickel discussed the relation of curriculum adjustment to the problems of nonacademic pupils. He proposed that adaptation of the curriculum to the needs of such pupils was not sufficient but that in order to insure success, situations must be arranged with which pupils are given a "feeling of belonging," creative ideas and talents are encouraged, opportunity to gain improved status provided, and experience built around the concrete things, processes, and activities. By these means, it is hoped that such pupils will acquire social competency and become occupationally adjusted.

Changes in traditional curriculum organization which he suggested are:

1. The establishment of "core" classes.
2. Emphasis upon the practical aspects (practical chemistry, practical aeronautics, practical photography, etc.).
3. Provision for remedial classes in reading and arithmetic.
4. Classification in homogenous groups.
5. Provision for work experience.

The key to the effective handling of problems concerning nonacademic pupils is good teaching. Teachers of such pupils must have sincere interest and intelligent understanding in their problems, must be emotionally stable and able to withstand frustration, have patience, a sense of humor, enthusiasm and dedication. Various means of providing in-service education for teachers of these pupils are faculty meetings, panels, talks, films, plays, and discussions. College courses both summer and extension would be exploited. Reference books and magazine articles should be recommended to their attention. Teachers institutes, work-shop, visitation in other schools, and the use of self-evaluating questionnaires are each helpful measures.

In summary it was pointed out that the suggestions of the five members of the panel would probably be futile if applied in a compartmental manner. Any program for dealing with special types of pupils such as are the subject of this discussion must be one in which all elements are so fused that their application would appear to be mosaic rather than separate entities.

CONFERENCE NO. 2

"Practical problems in planning and organizing for in-service education."

Participants

Chairman: Delmas F. Miller, Principal, University High School, Morgantown, West Virginia.

Recorder: Clarence A. Brock, State Department of Education, Charleston, West Virginia.

Consultants: O. L. Edmundson, Principal, Bridgeport, Ohio. Jean Fair, Social Studies Department, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois. Robert J. Keller, Professor of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. Joseph A. Mason, Superintendent, Niles Township High School, Skokie, Illinois. Bruce Nelson, Dean, Eastern Michigan College, Ypsilanti, Michigan. Norman Thorpe, Principal, Teachers College High School, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.

Although there were more than two hundred persons in attendance, the chairman was able to get a great deal of audience participation in the discussion of this

vital subject. The subject outline in the official program was used to guide the audience as they asked the panel members questions and helped them explore practical solutions to the problems.

Mr. Edmundson summarized the answers to the problem involved in improving and making effective an in-service education program early in the discussion when he quoted Harold Spears from his book, *Improving Supervision of Instruction*, Prentice-Hall, New York, 1953:

In trying to reach its goal, the in-service program will wander down every avenue that is open. It will sit in the curriculum committee room; it will go in and out of the classroom; it will travel to far-off places; it will go into the community; it will study the child and the various other aspects of pedagogy. But in spite of all its ramifications, it will find its true distinction in its original goal—the professional growth of the teacher.

The discussion returned to the substance of the above quotation many times.

The formal faculty meeting set up and carried out by the principal has been discarded and replaced by workshop and committee-type procedures. The subjects of study come from the real needs of the individual faculty members and result in an interaction, a cooperation, an improvement of morale, a broadening of knowledge and an opening of minds of the participants.

The problem of motivation of faculty participation in in-service study has no single answer—it "will wander down every avenue." There must be clear and accurate communication between all members of the group; they must want to be a part of the study, and it must be practical and real to them. The flexible steering committee is an organizational device; it is also a means of making use of interests, abilities, and overcoming the inertia of "bodies too long at rest." Among the devices listed for motivation of in-service study were listed: salary adjustment, advancement in assignment preference, and improvement in guaranteed tenure.

A curriculum council that coordinates the work of teacher at all levels from

kindergarten through the senior high school is effective in the development of a complete sequence of materials and understandings so important to successful teaching.

There needs to be a close communication between school administrators and the teacher training institutions. Many colleges now have a "follow-up" program in which members of the pre-teacher-training educational staffs go into the field to visit with former students on the job and to act as consultants and resource people in in-service education projects. A plan that makes it possible for beginning teachers to return to college for a visit as provided in the Ypsilanti Alumni Day can be of great value. These plans of cooperation between schools and colleges will not just help the inexperienced teacher; they will tend to change the teacher training programs to make them more practical and more in tune with the real needs of teachers on the job.

There are community resources that can be harnessed to stimulate teacher growth. Industry is willing and able to be of service to help teachers. Teachers often are expected to use community resources without an opportunity to know about them. Industry education days, advisory committees of lay people (especially in the area of health and safety), school-community workshops, and parent-teacher study groups are effective devices for the improvement of teaching. The teacher can discover her community. She can learn what is there and at the same time discover its needs. The use of student groups to help teachers and administrators discover school weaknesses and strengths will be helpful. This is sometimes done by the unsigned questionnaire and also by including student leaders in exploratory meetings.

Professional organizations are increasing the scope of their services to teachers. They have found that an interest in the welfare of their group is not enough. Social and educational projects are now a part of the total program of almost all of the

teacher organizations. "Trade" journals are full of informative articles aimed at the upgrading of teaching.

Schools are using many devices to help beginning teachers get underway. The administrative bulletin, the pre-school conference, and the "big brother" or "big sister" plan seem to be the usual plans for helping the new teacher bridge the gap of inexperience. Of course, it is important that the experienced teacher, assigned to help the new faculty member, be selected with care.

Surely, higher pay is an index to in-service growth of teachers. There are other indices too. For instance, can the teacher get real stimulation and satisfaction from the job? Time is a real problem in making an in-service program work. Is it worth closing schools for a day or even for a period? Is it practical to use substitute teachers while teachers work on an in-service project? Can teachers be freed from some of the non-professional tasks? The genuine question is—What is your in-service program worth? How do you evaluate it? Is the problem solved? Has the teacher and teaching changed?

Superintendents and principals are the "second teacher trainers" and their understanding of an acceptance of the responsibility involved in the continued education of teachers is the keystone to the structure. The edifice of teacher growth stands or falls with them.

CONFERENCE NO. 3

"How can we improve our program for talented youth?"

Participants

Chairman: Frank S. Endicott, Director of Placement and Associate Professor of Education, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.

Recorder: Nancy K. Knaak, School of Education, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.

Consultants: John M. Stalnaker, President, National Merit Scholarship Corporation, Evanston, Illinois. Eric R. Baber, Superintendent, Rich Township High School, Park Forest, Illinois (now Assistant Superintendent, Waukegan High School, Waukegan, Illinois). Lewis B. Mayhew, Director, North Central Association Study on Liberal Arts Edu-

cation, Associate Professor on the Board of Examiners, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan.

In the effort to discover academically able students, Mr. Stalnaker reported that the National Merit Scholarship Corporation believes the first step must take place in the high schools where such students are best known. Then, on the basis of scholastic aptitude test scores, the school record, personal information and recommendations, a limited number of them are selected for scholarship awards. In these early stages of the Merit Scholarship Program, much of the collected data remains to be more extensively studied. At present, case studies show award candidates to be high in test performance and class rank, but also to be participants in school activities, to have exhibited social and personal skills in their individual hobbies, and to have shown a capacity for work. As the program expands, additional awards will be available to increased numbers of talented youth. Meanwhile, a list of four thousand holders of Certificates of Merit attesting their superior ability but for whom financial awards have not been possible has been sent to colleges and other groups and individuals granting scholarships. It is hoped that such a list will add strength to existing scholarship plans and call particular attention to the abilities of these young people.

Following Mr. Stalnaker's description of the Merit Program, Mr. Baber dealt more specifically with the manner in which the small high school could discover and assist gifted students during their high school careers. The most frequent methods seem to be homogeneous grouping, acceleration, program enrichment, or combinations of these. Because enrollment may make homogeneous grouping administratively impracticable in the small school, acceleration, by means of advanced honors courses taken in lieu of offerings in the regular sequence of such subjects as literature, science, mathematics, and the like, and program enrichment seem more

readily possible. Program enrichment, however, does not mean the inclusion of "more of the same." Rather, it indicates the provision of opportunities for creative and original thinking, research, and broadened experience. The necessary individualization of instruction does call for limitations in class size, fifteen to twenty-five students rather than thirty-five or more and for enthusiastic, gifted teachers who deal with ideas, with their meanings and relationships. Some of the means through which program enrichment can be implemented by the small high school are these:

1. Make individualized long-range assignments of a month or a semester so that the gifted student may work at his own rate on some special problem or project of interest and significance to him.
2. Utilize after-class time in cultivating the confidence and friendship of the gifted child. Show a genuine interest in him as a person and encourage him to express his talent in new ways.
3. Make more effective use of library facilities. Help able students find primary sources rather than relying entirely on commentaries.
4. Teachers who take a few minutes of class time to discuss their own interesting and appropriate reading find that gifted students are eager to get and read the same books for themselves.
5. Opportunities should be provided through class or club for gifted children to hear and get acquainted with experts in the field of their giftedness.
6. Try to help gifted pupils find the *means* and the *will* to go on into higher education. A concerted effort on the part of school administrators, counselors, and teachers to encourage more of our gifted adolescents to enter higher education could have a tremendous and far-reaching effect upon the future well-being of America.
7. Help these gifted youngsters to better understand their own talents and limitations—and their unique opportunities for service in the scheme of society. Many of them have been exploited to the point of arrogance and selfishness. They need to discover through association and experience that genuine learning comes from true humility. Participating in special interest fields with other students whose giftedness is superior to their own may guide them to increased respect and appreciation for others. Thus they learn how to work cooperatively with others for the common good while, at the same time, they are developing their own special talents.

While Mr. Mayhew agreed that similar means could be utilized by the colleges, certain problems were eminent. Among

these were the general problems of retention and motivation, and the administrative difficulties not only in providing comprehensive programs but in involving gifted students in such curricula. Concerning methodological procedures, a handicap exists in the presence of instructors who may be inclined to force their own interests or research on students where individual and independent exploration, in which the faculty member serves primarily as a resource person, might prove more fruitful to the student. Current study of this problem suggests that radical departures from more typical classroom procedures and the provision of increased time for individual, personal attention to students are desirable.

All of the panel members concurred that the very definition of talent, the discovery of talented youth, and research to determine the characteristics of the gifted student of high school and college age, particularly his motivation, present challenging and vital areas for examination. In the concluding discussion, other factors were considered, among them, the effect of the cultural pattern on American youth and on their academic performance and motivation. One aspect of this was identified as our apparent stress on education for everybody, but not education as synonymous with scholarship. Another was the effect of parental expectation and vocational aspiration, items sometimes of more influence upon the student's performance than intellectual curiosity. The gifted student whose school achievement falls below his capacity was also believed to demand particular attention from the counseling staff and faculty members. While increased study has been devoted to the gifted, members of the panel and audience agreed that even more is needed and that more effective implementation of research findings within secondary school and college programs is essential.

CONFERENCE NO. 4

"Improving classroom teaching in guiding and counseling youth with implications for in-service training in testing"

Participants

Chairman: Paul R. Pierce, Department of Education, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana.

Recorder: Elizabeth E. Marshall, Assistant Director of Radio and Television, Public Schools, Chicago.

Consultants: Lee R. Gilbert, Principal, Froebel High School, Gary, Indiana. Thaddeus J. Lubera, Associate Superintendent of Schools, Chicago. Blanch B. Paulson, Director, Counseling Services, Public Schools, Chicago. Rev. Walter Pax, Chairman, Department of Education, De Paul University, Chicago. Beman Phillips, Director of Research, State Department of Public Instruction, Indianapolis, Indiana. Martin L. Stamm, Counselor, Washington High School, South Bend, Indiana.

Pierce.—Father Pax, as a University man you get a great deal of the impact of guidance and counseling at the secondary school level. Won't you open our discussion?

Father Pax.—In DePaul and other universities we get many people who have not been counseled. We often wonder, "Who let you in?" and, "Who let you think you ever had a chance here?" Too frequently we get evidence of bad instead of good counseling.

People who deal with high school graduates should ask more frequently, "Should *all* be admitted to college?" "Is it right to encourage normal, average youngsters that a college career is to their benefit?"

What in guidance can be improved so that more who *should* will get to college, and those who *should not* will stay out?

Stamm.—Perhaps we have some answers to these problems if we look for clues in the student's high school record when he is still in high school. Perhaps his vocabulary, his knowledge of words, is the most discriminating factor. If he is to succeed in college, he must have the mechanics of expression. The *linguistic* element is revealed by program and I.Q. tests to be the most significant of all. It is

far more determinative of success or failure, at least in the freshman year.

Paulson.—As a spokesman on the secondary level, may I say that we must recognize that many students land in poorly-chosen colleges despite the counseling given them in high school. In our educational planning we must think, "What college?" We must consider which college will give the individual the kind of experience he is seeking. The question is, "What college for what purpose?"

Today's cultural pattern emphasizes *everyone's* going to college. We must find the *right* college and think through the training and experience that will be offered the student at that college.

Gilbert.—All of this is closely related to another complicated problem, the problem of needs—the need for college-trained persons to enter the various professions, and the need for *teachers* of these professions.

A recent teacher supply survey indicates we are barely meeting our teacher needs in the present "status quo." By 1965 we will need a half million *more* teachers. We also will be needing more engineers, more technicians, more skilled persons of all kinds. Yet our universities are complaining that they are getting students from the lower half of our high school graduating classes. We must do all we can to guide our young people to wise selection of future careers and future college or non-college programs.

Marshall.—Here is where radio and television can help. In the Chicago Public Schools we schedule many guidance-counseling programs, both on radio and TV, dealing with careers and related interests. In all of these we try to give an honest picture of "what it takes" to succeed in various professions and fields. We purposely de-glamorize a career to stress the demands, hard work, and educational background essential to success, so that students will realize the importance of subject knowledge: linguistics, math, science, and all the other requirements. These broadcasts win under-

standing and support of parents and others for the growth and development of the guidance and counseling services. Printed manuals or handbooks prepared to accompany the broadcasts offer suggestions for the teacher's use of these programs along with related guidance-counseling information.

Lubera.—I think we must focus our attention on the classroom teacher who is confronted daily with thirty-five children. How is she to guide their learning in view of the multiplicity of her problems? We must help teachers to recognize the importance of the guidance program for better leisure, for better capacities to learn, for better organization of their work, and in such essentials as learning to read.

How is the teacher to approach her work when she has, let us say, four levels of intelligence right in one group, with a wide variety of boys and girls representative of Chicago's great metropolitan area—often from foreign and poor economic backgrounds? What have we in guidance and counseling that will help this teacher? What literature is available? What must the teacher know about her school community, for understanding the people in it and their desires and motives for learning? Just what constitutes the "practical aspects" of guidance? What have we to offer the teacher as a ready-made "handbook" to guide her? What can she do about the many children who come to her who are total non-readers? Such problems as these become a crisis to the teacher and a challenge to those of us responsible for guidance. What can we offer?

Pierce.—Many high schools do not have high school guidance-counseling specialists and therefore the burden falls largely on the teacher herself. To me, this is a matter of competencies, with training teachers where direct guidance *is* possible. Just what kind of preservice training in guidance, testing, and counseling should the teacher have?

Lubera.—I find teachers who don't

know what to do with test data, who don't know how to interpret scores or analyze findings. I suggest we offer in our teacher colleges courses on the interpretation of test results, on recognizing possible solutions, and on *doing* something about the test findings.

What is gained by all this [guidance]? Is it preaching or mere "telling off"? No, it's helping the teacher to help herself; to recognize problems, and to *do* something about them.

Gilbert.—For the purposes of good discussion the panel should, at some time, get controversial. Therefore I should like to take issue with Dr. Lubera. To be controversial, may I say that as a profession, we *on the job* are not handling our profession any better? It's not that teacher education is not good enough, I know. Rather it is because it is theoretical information that has not had a chance to go into the laboratory-experimental type of use, and because our practice (practical) teaching is too limited in use. We are tied in the position of having to put a brand new teacher in the position of veteran with all the problems that exist, particularly in our urban schools. Therefore, the person with new training begins teaching in this untenable situation which causes the teacher to do just one thing, and that is to teach as her own teachers did. Therefore the teacher training program is lost.

Floor.—May I suggest as one solution to the practice teacher problem, that she have time from college for classroom visitation of approximately one week in the same classroom where she will be assigned for her practice teaching? This preliminary week might serve as a kind of orientation to be followed by her return to the university class where she can get help to meet that particular classroom situation, knowing something of its background and problems involved.

Paulson.—I don't think the practice teacher ever can face the true facts of life as long as she is a practice teacher with a regular teacher right there in the classroom for her to lean on. She cannot ap-

proach the problems naturally. It's like the bride's learning to cook when mother is still in the kitchen with her.

I think the young teacher brings something to teaching which she loses later on. Perhaps the young teachers have their virtues.

Floor.—In reaction to Mrs. Paulson's "You can't learn to cook with Mama in the kitchen," may I say that one just doesn't have the same point of view when one is a practice teacher? I think we're asking too much of a new teacher when we expect perfection. Veteran teachers think too that we're asking something "extra" when we expect them to know all these things about tests, counseling, and guidance.

Gilbert.—Perhaps Mrs. Paulson will expand on that point according to her experience in the Chicago Public Schools. I'd like to say that teachers must understand that guidance is not something "extra" and apart from teaching; that guidance will facilitate their teaching, will help them with their understanding of the choices a youngster makes, and with their own selection and interpretation of his experiences. For example, a student who is not doing well in algebra is having an experience in algebra and also an experience in failure. The teacher assists when she makes something *positive* of this situation. She is helping this student with future attitudes of self. She is giving guidance and counseling naturally as a part of her teaching.

Floor.—Mr. Stamm, you are closely connected with teachers in your work. What do teachers feel in regard to guidance work? Doesn't the teacher have to cope with failure as well as the student? How does the student feel about disciplinary measures the teacher has to take sometimes? And what is your impression of the way teachers feel toward the guidance program and guidance practices in general?

Stamm.—We know there is a mixed feeling about guidance. Some teachers "tolerate" guidance; others have a "Wait

and see what it will do" attitude.

We feel the guidance spot is a place of importance. It's a good opening, a good place to start in this training of teachers. The guidance person can help teachers understand the problems of discipline and how to handle them.

Marshall.—Then with guidance, as with everything else: the interpretation, understanding, and use of the program is determined by the teacher. If she's potentially a good teacher, though new, she'll be interested because she is a high-calibre person. She has it within her to accept the help of the guidance specialist where there is one. Such a person—the "good teacher"—sees guidance as an ally, not as something "extra" but as something helpful, closely related and essential to effective teaching.

Floor.—I agree. The answer is in the "raw material" of the teacher. The prospective teacher is either that high-calibre, "good teacher" Mrs. Marshall has referred to, or she's just average or even low average raw material. She either has or has not "what it takes."

Pax.—Let's not become anti-intellectual in relation to the teaching profession. Teachers have a long, hard road to travel. They are still trying to achieve status. Teachers as members of a profession are very conscious of their right to hold their heads up. Maybe some apologize when they shouldn't. Maybe some do surround their courses with a pompous, professional "lingo" that mystifies their students. Here again is where guidance can help.

Marshall.—We spoke of the "good teacher." She is not necessarily the veteran teacher or "superior" because of subject knowledge and background. The good teacher puts her *heart* into her work, and because she does she *cares* about every student in her class—the little brat as well as the angel child, the problem child, the model student. *All* are her charges and because she cares, she will do all she can to *guide* as well as teach.

Pax.—The teacher's professional lan-

guage is a balloon that ought to be deflated. Too, we must remember that good teaching supplements and complements what goes on in the good home; and that it is not impossible for teachers of good will to take on the guidance program. We need people with better motivation and with more confidence in self in the teaching profession.

Lubera.—Do teachers know enough about the child; his nature, and his growth from grade to grade? Love and affection are evident in the kindergarten and primary grades, but what happens then? Guidance is more than a challenge to teachers; it's an opportunity!

If we're going to expect teachers to accept guidance and make the most of it, we'll have to do more than to give them only the *why's* but never the *how's*!

Gilbert.—One function of the teacher is to impart subject matter, to sell a commodity which carries its own label. Understanding and working with boys and girls is more complex than imparting knowledge. Many teachers "bow out" on this function.

Pierce.—Getting back to the matter of teacher training and preservice training, just how much do we expect teachers to "get by" on? What other profession would be satisfied with as little as only one to two years of graduate training? Many haven't been adequately prepared and already are teaching!

Marshall.—We must not overlook the role of the good principal, administrator, and district superintendent in guidance, in helping these people on the job. A good principal can make or break a good teacher. He is in a key position to give subtle guidance to those under him, either personally or through recommended association with others—master teachers, supervisors, and specialists. Our administrators play a significant role in the total guidance program.

Pierce.—We also must train our teachers to deal with parents and the various publics with which a school system is concerned.

Floor.—Do we really have a profession? So many do not enter teaching as a life-time job. Why is this?

Pax.—Today, teaching is both a science and an art. We won't reach professional status unless society gives us more recognition. America is expecting too much of its teachers. We say the teacher must teach "the whole child." A dentist cares for the child's teeth alone. What's a school teacher for? The school is a formal institution set up by society to do a particular job. Instruction is that primary job. The school can *not* teach "the whole child." Others—the home, church, and community—must assume many of the responsibilities they've been shoving upon the teachers.

Floor.—We learn from each other's failures as well as our successes. A group of noted surgeons once gathered to discuss the "murders" they had committed. Afterwards one of them brilliantly performed a difficult operation, thus saving a life from sharing in the telling of one another's failures. So it is with teaching and guidance.

Floor.—Practice teachers *are* getting good training today and many *are* doing a good job of learning to become good teachers. What can be done about the older teachers who try to disillusion enthusiastic newcomers in the profession?

Pierce.—Teachers must have prudence in counseling. All of us working *together* through the guidance program is the solution. We've been challenged to do some fine thinking here this evening and now each of us can go back to our respective jobs, better equipped to work through the guidance program.

CONFERENCE NO. 5

"What is the program of the high school likely to be in 1980?"

Participants

Chairman: James E. Blue, Principal, West Senior High School, Rockford, Illinois.

Recorder: Roy C. Turnbaugh, Associate Principal, J. Sterling Morton High School and Junior College, Cicero, Illinois.

Consultants: Carl W. Anderson, Principal, South High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota. Paul E. Johnson, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Curriculum and Supervision, Indianapolis, Indiana. Paul R. Klohr, Director, University School, Ohio State University, Columbus. James D. Logsdon, Principal, Shorewood, Wisconsin. Wanda B. Mitchell, Chairman Speech Department, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois.

The general answer to the question, "Who *should* be served by the high schools?" is relatively easy. Those *should* be served, (1) who want to be served, and (2) whom the community wants the schools to serve.

According to data from the last national census, a little over 55 percent of the 15-19 year olds of 30 years ago completed one or more years of high school. Today, we are serving nearly 90 percent of youth of high school age. But many of these youths are still leaving school before they have reached an employable age. At the same time the barriers to their employment are increasing:

The Fair Labor Standards Act continues to require a minimum of 16 years of age for workers in interstate commerce.

Union regulations often require members to be 18 years of age or older.

State child-labor laws place drastic limitations on the employability of youth under 18 years.

Technological developments in our society are demanding an ever higher level of general education.

Increasing competition is coming from our aging citizens for part-time, seasonal, and full-time jobs not covered by restricting regulations.

The high schools of 1980 should serve all younger youth of legal public school age whether formally enrolled in a full-time program or not, whether married or unmarried, whether educable or trainable.

Theorists in education have been emphasizing for many years that education must capitalize on the real concerns and interests of the learner if learning and teaching are to be most efficient and effective. This implies that education is a life-long process pacing the physical, mental, social, and emotional development of the learner and the new demands

which life makes on him.

For many youth our best high schools have done an admirable job of serving their vocational interests including pre-college education, their growing awareness of civic responsibilities, and their social and marital-related concerns. But, for those whose vocational interests are late in developing; for those whose awareness of civic responsibility is only awakened at the time of registration for military service or later; for those whose concern for balancing family budgets, for rearing children, and for making out income tax returns is delayed until about the time the first-born arrives; for many of these we are not doing so well in the formal high school program. Some will receive the help they need later in college; many never will receive it.

With the wants of active citizens of all ages from 16 years and older increasing, and with the community expressing its demands that the schools serve them, our multi-million dollar high school plants which at one time were on single shifts for nine and one-half months of the year are now moving toward double-shifts the year around. To meet their communities' needs for education high schools will have to improve their methods. Such methods, developed to meet the educational wants of adults, may have a salutary effect on education which has all too often have been dependent for its continued existence on the helplessness of the captive students.

The high schools of 1980 should serve older youth and active adults whose needs for vocational, civic, and family life education have been late developing or have changed with maturity.

The growing percentage of people beyond what has come to be considered "retirement age" is a new phenomenon in our civilization. The study of all its implications is still in its infancy. The educational wants and needs of this new vast segment of our people need analysis and exploration. Experimentation at the local level is needed. The same community

institution which was moved effectively into the general adult education field will probably be the one to give leadership in moving forward on this more specialized problem, if effective action is to be undertaken.

Many unanswered questions are yet to be answered. The answers will have much to do with determining the educational needs and wants of the aging group.

The high schools of 1980 should serve older adults who have passed the age of greatest activity and are in need of re-education to recognize and accept the limitations, and to utilize the opportunities of old age.

What learning experiences should be provided in high schools in 1980? As one attempts to project his thinking into the next quarter of a century and to visualize the learning experiences that should characterize the high school of the 1980's, he would do well to hold in focus the wisdom of Whitehead who asserted: "Knowledge does not keep any better than fish." And so, believing this, one holds firmly the assumption that if effective learning experiences are to be provided by the high school of the 1980's, they must be related directly to the world in which the adolescent of 1980 will find himself.

Relating a high school program to the world in which an adolescent lives means, quite clearly, that major curriculum content must be shaped by the basic needs, the problems, the developmental tasks faced by those adolescents as they grow and mature in that society.

Recognizing then the inescapable necessity for considering the curricular process as one looks ahead to the kinds of learning experiences that should characterize the high school of the future, five generalizations seem relevant. Their relevancy is based on a synthesis of discernible trends in the present theory and practice of education as one professional discipline in the general field of behavioral sciences. They are presented briefly here, without full development, with the expectation that one, or perhaps several of

them may serve to stimulate thinking and discussion about the large questions we face. They are stated in the future tense and are viewed as indices of possible areas where "break-throughs" may be forthcoming in secondary education:

1. The high school student, himself, will be heavily involved in shaping the design of the high school curriculum and in the selection of learning experiences to fulfill that design.
2. Significant learning experiences for the adolescent in the high school of 1980 will grow out of his perceptions of his high school teachers who reveal themselves daily as students in their own deep engagement with the media of their special fields.
3. Learning in the high school of the future will be centered in a wide range of direct experiences *outside of the school* proper, with the school taking major responsibility for helping youth to "reflect on" these experiences with all of the resources available in the school and community.
4. Values and valuing will play an increasingly vital role in the selection of learning experiences with youth.
5. The aesthetic, or creative component of experience will be fostered in the learning of youth to a degree only vaguely sensed now.

How may we provide improved learning experiences for youth in high school in 1980? We can assume (a) that youth will be similar in physical characteristics, emotional reaction and mental endowment to today's youth and (b) that the complexity of society will be as puzzling then as now.

Improvement in citizenship education will entail vitalizing the student council through actual participation in community issues. It will also involve emphasizing the aspect of service in citizenship experiences.

Provision of improved learning experiences for individual development may require a summer round-up in which teenage students and parents spend several days or weeks learning about themselves and teamwork with the school.

Some improvements will be needed in the school plant. Among them will be well-equipped laboratories to provide experimental facilities for students; school auditoriums with space and equipment for scenery construction, make-up, costumes, and script writing, space for suburban

farming; facilities for school camping; and a youth center. Experience already accumulated shows the successful possibilities of all these. It will be necessary to reorganize not only the school plant, but also the school day and the school year.

What instructional equipment may be used extensively in the high school of 1980? One of the most striking new tools is television, already in use with numerous educational stations established and the closed circuit installations operating in at least 55 universities, eight military installations, and six high schools. Added to earlier research projects will be those beginning in September in several high schools under sponsorship of the Fund for the Advancement of Education.

The introduction of television has brought two powerful challenges to educators. It has placed a powerful tool in the hands of non-educators, and it dramatizes the need for motivation to *think* and to want better *ideas*.

How may we now establish agreement in our school communities regarding purposes and program of the high school in 1980? A topic such as this would not have received much attention twenty five years ago in a meeting such as we are holding this evening. By and large, the leaders in education, and particularly the administrators at the local level, have felt that if the things which they do are reasonable and logical there should be no particular reason to involve the general public any more than necessary. Administrators have become concerned when things which they recommended which seemed to them to be reasonable and even supported in many cases by research findings haven't been accepted by the general public.

We are living in an age when people expect in all our human activities that there will be those who chart a course for the future. The scientists and the medical profession have been particularly effective in getting the people to accept the idea that changes in the future will come swiftly and will give us new things which are almost beyond our belief. It is well for

education to show the same imagination at times to help dispel the idea that we are necessarily and by nature a very conservative group of people.

One of the things which we need to do in the future and which we haven't done too adequately in the past is to identify within the general public, certain interests and areas and appeal to them on the basis of things that they are interested in.

Of course the parents of our school children are an important group whom we must constantly work with. Perhaps it is safe to say that of all the groups we must work with the parents' interests are the broadest because they are interested in all aspects of the school program as it affects their children.

Business groups are also vitally interested in the schools but their interest stems from a different angle.

We have many social and cultural groups whose main interest in education is likely to take a somewhat different slant. These will include welfare organizations, the church, and groups in some way affiliated with religious convictions. Perhaps it would be better in working with them to stress what the schools can do to develop moral and spiritual values in young people.

Another group of organizations are those which have a patriotic basis. These include numerous veterans organizations and auxiliaries. The most effective way to work with these organizations is to stress what the schools can do to teach citizenship and patriotism to our young people.

The group which we should begin to work most intensively with, and the group which we have neglected to prepare for future change are the students in our schools today. If we are going to be realistic we must realize that twenty-five years from now a high percentage of these students will be parents of the children going to school.

Since we do not know with any assurance what education will be twenty-five years from now, the main thing which we

must stress with all of these groups is the idea that the schools must be flexible and ready to change with changing conditions. This seems obvious to us but it is one of the most difficult things for the general public to accept.

If we are to accomplish real change with public support we must be careful to really involve the people concerned in the process of change and not be content merely to explain to them what the change is all about after we have effected it. This means that we must include lay members on our planning committee. We are already doing this in the matter of planning buildings and playgrounds. We must also do it in the field of curriculum.

The people of the United States are a practical people. When we know that an idea works we must invite the public in to see it. Telling about it is not enough. Our people have developed a skepticism towards verbal expressions of success. They need to be shown.

Finally we must begin now to accustom our people to the idea that a new and dynamic type of education is going to cost more money. We must make them understand that the strength of our nation will depend on how well we develop our human resources and that education is our main method in developing these resources. If we can do these things the people will accept the kind of program we will need for 1980.

CONFERENCE NO. 6

"General education in the junior college and college, and its implications for the high school"

Participants

Chairman: R. G. Bone, Assistant Provost, University of Illinois, Urbana.

Recorder: J. Walter Gillis, Principal, Barrington, Illinois.

Consultants: Edward Carlin, Assistant Dean of the Basic College, Michigan State University, East Lansing. James M. McCrimmon, Head, Division of General Studies, University of Illinois, Urbana. Rev. Jerome J. Marchetti, S.J., Dean, College of

Arts and Science, Saint Louis University, St. Louis, Missouri. Harold Metcalf, Superintendent, Bloom Township High School, Chicago Heights, Illinois. Elmer W. Rowley, Dean Joliet Junior College, Joliet, Illinois.

From an unidentified source the following definition was offered:

General education is designed to develop in all youth the values, the faith, behavior, judgment, discipline, and skills necessary for them to function individually and co-operatively in maintaining and improving our democratic society.

The discussion was launched using the above definition as, at least, generally agreeable to the five panel members. It was agreed by the panel that it would be most difficult to obtain practical agreements about general education from the various faculties. Professor Carlin had this to say: "Each faculty is composed of a large number of individuals of diverse backgrounds, experiences, and training. To attempt to present a monolithic-philosophic position relative to general education would be presumptuous indeed."

Father Marchetti stated the problem as follows: "When one sets about to obtain practical agreements in a given faculty about general education there are evident problems. The very term 'general education' may serve as a 'red flag' for the traditionalist professor."

Mr. McCrimmon reported that "at present there is no university-wide agreement about general education on the Urbana campus."

All speakers agreed that most universities and colleges had courses and aims that called for a well-rounded education for its graduates. Again there seems to be no hard and fast rules as to what constitutes such an education.

The University of Illinois has two general education curricula, both in the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences. One of these is the General Curriculum, a grouping of introductory courses in the natural and social sciences and the humanities. The other is the Division of General

Studies, an integrated department of the college.

At Michigan State general education is divided into four areas, as follows: Communication Skills, Natural Science, Social Science, and Humanities. In each of these areas a single course of a year's duration is offered to the students. All students who take a degree at Michigan State must satisfactorily complete all four of these course offerings with the exception of transfer students who can demonstrate that they have had comparable course experiences elsewhere.

Saint Louis University offers no courses which are designated as general education courses. It does have non-technical courses which seem to satisfy a broad definition of general education. All students are expected to have experiences in the backgrounds of Western civilization, world literature, foreign language, natural science and mathematics, social science, philosophy, and religion.

Mr. Rowley reported that on the junior college level attempts at general education movements meet with difficulty. Junior colleges prepare students to enter a college or university at the junior level. Consequently subjects offered must be acceptable by the higher institutions. On the adult level efforts to offer general education courses have met with more success. These courses are, it is felt, those that are needed by all members of a modern democratic society. These are courses emphasizing the duties of a member of a community, courses in literature which record the experiences and ideals of a race, and courses in social-psychology describing individuals and their place in the social order.

No criteria for general education courses were evident at any of the institutions represented. At Illinois "area committees" are responsible for establishing what courses are to be accepted as meeting the general education requirements of the particular college involved.

At Michigan State attempts to dis-

tinguish between general education courses and survey and introductory courses are difficult tasks. A survey course attempts to present to the student a sampling of most of the major items present in a discipline. An introductory course introduces the student to a discipline when it is expected that he will pursue other, more advanced work and that only with such more advanced materials will the significance of the introductory program be completely understood. General education courses deal with a limited number of concepts, principles and facts in each of the courses so that the student will have some opportunity for pursuing his materials in depth.

The establishment of criteria for these courses is a continuing task at Michigan State. These courses are constantly re-examined and reorganized, and it is expected that there will be continuous re-examination and reorganization. It is this type of action that means success to the general education program at East Lansing.

Mr. Metcalf reported nine needs of high school teachers in the area of general education (page 347).

In general it would seem that the colleges are not meeting all of the above needs. Colleges do an adequate job only in various areas.

In order to better meet these needs, colleges and high schools need closer co-operation and co-ordination. There should be far less bitterness and incrimination between the two types of institutions and more harmonious working relationships in order to perfect the general education necessary for teacher competencies.

Excerpts from Consultant's Discussions

Carlin

I should like to emphasize the following: Michigan State University does have a general education program administered separately from the other colleges of the institution. It is composed of four course offerings which all students must take before they are granted a degree. The courses have been developed by individual faculties in each of the four

areas. While it is unlikely and perhaps undesirable that complete agreement with respect to the details of a general education program would be reached by the entire faculty there is general agreement that such a program is non-specialized, is generally co-ordinated and is designed to give the student, who in all probability will specialize, a perspective that may make him not only a better specialist but a better citizen as well. The faculty is aware of the imperatives to distinguish these courses from survey courses that attempt to cover everything, and introductory courses that presume a future edifice. The success of their efforts in this area is difficult to judge but from my not unbiased position they seem quite gratifying.

Rowley

Most of the praise that comes to our institution [Joliet Junior College] from college and university professors seems to originate with those who recognize in many of our graduates the abilities and skills which come with years of intensive study in the sciences (both biological and physical), social studies, humanities, and even rhetoric.

Attempts at general education movements in junior colleges are often faced with charges of "watering down." Any suggested shrinking of the basic science, social science, or business courses in order to make room for courses of a general nature are frowned upon as stemming from some new fad.

In the past few years our institution has initiated some courses which might be classified as General Education. "Social Science," encompassing the fields of economics, sociology, and political science has met with great success since about half our students take the course. "Home and Family Living" has been popular also. "Descriptive Astronomy" has fallen by the wayside, as has "Conservation." A new course, "Family Financial Security Education," has been well accepted. "Social Arts," a study of the basic considerations in learning how to get along with others through an understanding of the elements of mental hygiene and of group dynamics, has never drawn enough students to form a class.

A whole new series of co-educational physical education classes has seemed to serve as one of our best media for General Education. In the field of adult education, our efforts along these lines have met with more success. Here we have been able to initiate, with fairly adequate acceptance, quite a number of courses needed by all members of a modern democratic society, particularly courses emphasizing the duties of a member of a community, courses in literature, which record the experiences and ideals of a race, and courses in social-psychology describing individuals and their place in the social order. . . .

There may come a time when a large majority of our faculties will agree on aims and goals of general education. That time for junior colleges will depend

to a considerable extent upon the attitudes of the institutions to which our graduates transfer.

McCrimmon

There are no university-wide [Illinois] criteria of general education, nor has any college made explicit the criteria it uses. Any description of criteria, therefore, must be abstracted from the prevailing practices of the three agencies in charge of general education programs—the Division of General Studies, the General Education Committee of the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, and the “area committees” responsible for particular teacher-training programs. The practices of these agencies may be summarized as follows: *The Division of General Studies* by its practice defines general education largely in terms of content but partly in terms of procedure. The content is a selection of the pertinent data in the areas of verbal communication, history of civilization, biological science, physical science, social science, literature and fine arts, and psychology and philosophy. In each of these areas a year course of two four-hour semesters is offered as what might be called a “packaged program.” Each of these courses was designed as a general education sequence for a student who would presumably not continue with advanced work in the subject. With very few exceptions, the staff spends all its time in the work of the Division, all of which is at the freshman-sophomore level. *The General Education Committee of the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences* decides what courses are to be accepted as meeting the general education requirements of the college. These requirements are an 8-hour sequence in each of four areas—biological science, physical science, social science, and humanities. For the most part, the curriculum consists of the Division of General Studies courses and the introductory courses offered by the subject matter departments in each of the four areas mentioned. The committee is impeded by, and is concerned about, the lack of any clear-cut criteria to guide its decisions. Its prevailing practice is to accept a course for the general curriculum if (a) it can clearly be classified in one of the four stipulated areas, (b) it is an introductory course without college-level prerequisites, and (c) the members of the committee have confidence in the course. *The area committees* are responsible for making recommendations to the Council of Teacher Education concerning the teacher-training curricula, which, by State directive, must include a specified number of hours of credit in general education courses. . . .

What will be apparent from this brief summary of our situation is that our efforts have at times been desultory and divided. What will, unfortunately, not be apparent is the considerable amount of time, energy, and worry that individual faculty members over the years have devoted to the problem. Whether or not the latest attempt to establish criteria will produce any lasting results remains to be seen. What has to be done, however, begins to be clear. We

must first of all get agreement among interested faculty members about what we mean by general education at the University of Illinois, and then we must spell out these agreements into some kind of standard. Finally, we must determine to what extent our courses do provide a general education. These are not simple obligations, and they are not likely to be discharged quickly or easily. But in many ways there are modestly encouraging signs that the journey will end this side of Utopia.

Metcalf

High School teachers need in the area of general education:

1. Competence in oral and written expression.
2. Ability to think clearly and independently.
3. An understanding of the ideal of democracy; also skills in developing and using technics of democracy in action.
4. An understanding of himself and others, physically, mentally, psychologically.
5. An understanding of important principles in natural science.
6. An understanding of important principles in social science.
7. Some preparation in the humanities.
8. Some experience and appreciation in music and art.

Better ways of meeting needs of prospective teachers:

1. Encouraging more young people of promise to enter the teaching field.
2. More careful selection of teacher candidates by colleges.
3. Cooperative planning at the college level should result in:
 - (a) Fewer electives.
 - (b) Broader sampling of fields in general education.
 - (c) Changes in types and content of courses offered.
 - (d) Changes in requirements for teacher certification.

Marchetti

. . . the discussion of liberal education versus general education, it seems to me, is largely a problem of semantics.

In addition to this semantic difficulty, we are faced with what might be called the departmental as opposed to the humanistic approach to curricular problems and student development. Here, I think, we face a real rather than apparent dichotomy in educational ideologies. The departmental approach implies the primacy of each discipline with the result that each department is involved in a friendly rivalry for space and funds and time of the student. The humanistic approach is concerned with helping students towards a higher level of knowledge, understanding, and appreciation. . . .

The large majority of our faculty [St. Louis University] agree on the aims and goals of general education. The statement of these aims will appear somewhat curriculum-centered to the person who prefers the student-centered terminology and rather departmentally orientated to the humanist, but the basic ideas are definitely in evidence.

Our institution does not have courses which are designated as general education courses. We do have non-technical courses which, in the main, seem to satisfy a broad definition of general education. . . .

Our distribution requirements attempt to avoid

the pitfalls of compartmentalization and provide a non-vocational, non-specialist approach especially in the first two years. All students are expected to have experiences in the backgrounds of Western civilization, world literature, foreign language, natural science and mathematics, social science, philosophy, and religion. As our College bulletin describes the situation, "Each student's lower division course of study is an individual program designed to complete his general education in those areas which the College considers essential to a liberal education."

EDITOR'S NOTE

Better Education for Nonacademic Pupils, which immediately follows, was prepared by the Subcommittee on In-Service Education of Teachers. It is printed in bulletin form for later distribution.



BETTER EDUCATION FOR NONACADEMIC PUPILS

KENNETH N. NICKEL

A STUDY CONDUCTED AND REPORTED BY
THE SUBCOMMITTEE ON
IN-SERVICE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS
PAUL W. HARNLY, *Chairman*

IN COOPERATION WITH
AN ADVISORY GRADUATE COMMITTEE
UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO
STEPHEN A. ROMINE, *Chairman*

APRIL 1957

COMMITTEE ON TEACHER EDUCATION
COMMISSION ON RESEARCH AND SERVICE

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND
SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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FOREWORD

As HIGH SCHOOLS have tried more and more to meet the needs of all American youth there has been increased consciousness of the slow learners or pupils of so-called non-academic ability and interest. Discussion groups organized at the Chicago Annual Meetings to consider the problems in educating such pupils have been very popular. The principals in attendance have asked many questions seeking to learn how others have tried to solve these problems.

Because of this apparent interest and also because no comprehensive study of non-academic pupils had been made, the In-Service Education Committee has made this investigation and is publishing its findings.

The committee was assisted by Kenneth N. Nickel, Assistant Professor of Education, University of Wichita, who has served as consultant. He prepared the instruments, assembled the returns, tabulated the data, and wrote the report. He also worked closely with a graduate committee of the University of Colorado, whose chairman is Stephen A. Romine, Director, Bureau of Educational Research and Service, University of Colorado.

Mr. Nickel met with these committees to consider the objectives of the study, the techniques to be employed, and the probable form of the final report. The committees also advised in evaluating the data, selecting the items which seemed significant for busy teachers and administrators, and in organizing the outline for this booklet.

The committee is indebted to Miss Elfrieda Shellenberger, English instructor at Wichita High School East, who read the manuscript and provided many valuable suggestions.

One copy of this booklet is being made available to each member school of the North Central Association through the office of its state chairman. Additional copies may be obtained from R. Nelson Snider, Treasurer of the North Central Association, North Side High School, Fort Wayne, Indiana. Price single copies 25¢, quantities of ten or more, 15¢.

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January, 1957

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

THE LAST DECADE has found more and extended efforts being made to educate in the full sense of the word all of the children of all the people in the United States. This has resulted in a more careful study of the pupils, their abilities, interests, home situations, and their occupational objectives in order to adapt the program of the school to their particular needs. Schools attempting to provide the most effective program for all youth soon became concerned with the so-called non-academic pupils who do not achieve.

This lack of achievement may be due to such factors as emotional blocks, poor reading ability, or a different cultural background. It has been found that many pupils of near-average or average intellectual ability, who did not achieve, were often termed lazy or shiftless. If nothing constructive was done for these pupils, they frequently developed into discipline problems and many times dropped out of school after attending a short while.

This study was undertaken because so many schools have shown concern for this category of the school population, the nonacademic pupil. The educationally retarded, the slow learners, and the educable mentally-retarded were all included in the nonacademic group. The term, non-academic, as used in this report refers to those pupils who fail to learn effectively by means of the usual teaching methods which involve abstractions, symbols, and general verbal principles.

PROMISING AREAS OF STUDY

Identification of individual pupils who belong in the nonacademic category, some indication of their number, and some enumeration of their characteristics must be realized before worthwhile progress can be assured. School administrators and teachers are confronted with this identification problem first when working in the area of providing an educational program for nonacademic pupils.

Another immediate issue in developing this program is that of providing a course of study to meet the needs of these pupils and of developing school situations which will interest them and give them feelings of belonging and success. The question of motivating this group is also of major concern when formulating a program of education for them.

How to assist each student to achieve within his capacity and how to educate each student for citizenship responsibilities, while applicable to all high school pupils, are of particular importance in educating nonacademic pupils. Other problems of providing adequate materials, of discovering and using effective teaching procedures, of adapting the curriculum, and of scheduling special classes also face educators working to organize an effective program.

SOME PREVIOUS STUDIES IN THIS AREA

The broad, nonacademic category has not been the subject of an intensive study as such, but many studies of slow learners and mentally retarded pupils have added much valuable information. These studies have been useful sources for educators who wished to study the educational needs of nonacademic pupils. Two studies in the early thirties helped to center attention upon several aspects of this problem while later studies provided methods and techniques which were utilized by many high school administrators and teachers.

A. Public School Education of Atypical Children

This study¹ of atypical, or exceptional, children attempted to analyze educational opportunities being offered in 1931 in public schools in the large cities and to determine the costs of this type of educa-

¹ Robert W. Kunzig, *Public School Education of Atypical Children*. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin 1931, No. 10, (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1931).

tion. Atypical children were defined as pupils who required special facilities or instruction because of physical, mental, or moral deviation from the average. Statistics with regard to the size of classes for these children, equipment, housing, and required medical examinations were reported.

Outstanding limitations in education for atypical children at this time were reported as:

1. Inability to provide sufficient classes.
2. Segregation of the mentally subnormal at too late a date.
3. Inadequate facilities for the accurate study of these children.
4. Unsatisfactory cooperation with employers.

B. *Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking, and Promotion*

This study² was made in 1933. It reported the most effective provisions for individual differences among slower pupils were:

1. Homogeneous grouping.
2. Using the Morrison plan.
3. Utilizing differentiated assignments.
4. Using the contract plan.
5. Providing opportunity rooms for slow pupils.

In modified courses or special classes for lower groups, this study revealed that the differentiation of teaching procedures was farther advanced than the differentiation of subject matter.

C. *High School Methods with Slow Learners*

The Research Division of the National Education Association undertook this study³ in 1940. Slow learners were considered to be those pupils who were distinctly below the average in general ability, in a specific aptitude, or in both. A large proportion of the principals in the

responding high schools believed that:

1. Slow-learning pupils should be given less class work or less difficult work.
2. Slow learners should be given individual coaching or remedial work in special periods.
3. Pupils of low general ability should be given a special curriculum including some academic subjects but emphasizing practical or vocational activities.

The responding principals were reported as unanimously believing that school provisions for slow-learning pupils should differ in some essential respects from the provisions for average pupils.

A smaller majority of these principals reported that slow learners should:

1. Carry fewer courses at a time.
2. Not usually repeat work where they have failed to show satisfactory accomplishment.
3. Be placed in separate classes organized for low-ability pupils.
4. Participate in extra curricular activities no less than average students.

D. *Teaching Rapid and Slow Learners in High Schools*

Staff members of the Office of Education devised the questionnaire used in this study.⁴ The questionnaire was composed of three major parts:

1. Administrative provisions.
2. Techniques used in discovering rapid and slow learners.
3. Instructional provisions and procedures.

The results from the first part of the questionnaire indicated that:

1. Schools were making more provisions for slow learners than for rapid learners.
2. Schools were aware of individual differences and were making provisions to meet them.
3. Junior high schools made more adaptations for slow learners than either senior high schools or four-year high schools.
4. Comparatively fewer schools were using homogeneous grouping than twenty years ago.

The second part of this study on discovering and identifying slow learners showed that the four items used most were the following:

1. Teachers' marks.

² Roy C. Billett, *Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking and Promotion*. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin 1932, No. 17, (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1933).

³ NEA Research Division, "High School Methods with Slow Learners," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, 21, No. 3 (Washington, D. C.: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1943).

⁴ U. S. Office of Education, *Teaching Rapid and Slow Learners in High Schools* (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1954).

2. Group intelligence tests.
3. Teachers' estimates of school achievement.
4. Standardized achievement tests.

Individual intelligence tests, anecdotal records, and guidance counselors were reported as being used more extensively by large schools than by small schools.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THIS STUDY

Various authors have estimated that nonacademic pupils make up 20 to 25 percent of the present school population. Thus, if education is for all the children of all the people, high schools must find methods to meet the needs of nonacademic youth. Those who doubt the wisdom of investing public funds in this type of education should try to forecast the consequences of allowing future adult citizens to grow up uncultured, illiterate, and uninitiated in the democratic way of life. A letter from the principal of one of the schools in the study stresses this point of view:

I return herewith your questionnaire. I have made no effort to fill it out in detail. We are a small (ten teacher) high school. We run a straight college preparatory course and use every effort to keep "non-academic" students from getting started, but if they do get started, we apply the same treatment to them that we do to the others and in a matter of time they will fail out.

In years past, the so-called nonacademic students were herded along with the group and allowed to graduate. We have at least one teachers college in the state that does about the same with the result that we have several "nonacademic" teachers on the payroll of the public schools.

Increasing emphasis is being put upon a high school education by business and industry. Most high school teachers and administrators believe that the right type of high school education will materially assist nonacademic youth in more nearly reaching their potentialities and in becoming contributing, responsible citizens. Youth of our day are severely handicapped if they do not have a good high school education.

A. The Objectives of the Study

The major purpose of this study was to investigate the practices of selected high

schools in educating nonacademic pupils and to ascertain the value of these practices in the opinions of responding schools and of authorities in this area of education.

The five main objectives in the study were the following:

1. To ascertain those methods and devices used to identify the nonacademic pupil by the high schools in the study and the value of these methods.
2. To determine the methods used to adapt the curriculum to the nonacademic pupil so as to help him more nearly reach his full potentialities.
3. To discover the administrative procedures used to improve the educational program for nonacademic pupils and the value of these procedures.
4. To ascertain the methods used for teaching the nonacademic pupils in the high schools in the study and the relative value of these methods.
5. To identify the methods used by the schools in the study for in-service education of teachers in order that they might teach nonacademic pupils more effectively.

B. Definitions of Terms Used

In this study two terms were used in a particular sense. Other terms used differently from those in the ordinary sense were defined at the time used.

Nonacademic pupils.—This term was used to mean those pupils who fail to learn effectively through conventional teaching procedures involving language, symbols, abstractions, and general verbal principles which are prevalent in typical high school classes. This classification includes not only those with lower intellectual ability but also those pupils with more ability who do not learn because of lack of interest, poor reading ability, emotional blocks, and poor cultural background. Nonacademic pupils are characterized by lack of purpose, disinterest, poor powers of concentration, incapability of abstract reasoning, and poor study habits. Some are unable to comprehend and follow directions, are easily distracted, and are motivated chiefly by concrete experiences and very personal and short-term interests.

Students other than nonacademic pupils.—This phrase was defined to include those students who are enrolled in high school

but who were not included in the non-academic classification as defined above.

PROCEDURES USED IN THE RESEARCH

The data for this study were obtained by the questionnaire method. A basic questionnaire was evolved from a survey of the literature and research in this field of education. Two analagous questionnaires which were modifications of the basic questionnaire were also used.

The basic questionnaire consisted of items in five broad areas:

1. Identification of nonacademic pupils.
2. Curricular adaptations to meet the needs of non-academic pupils.
3. Administrative procedures for educating non-academic pupils.
4. The teacher and the nonacademic pupil.
5. In-service education of teachers to assist them in educating nonacademic pupils.

This basic questionnaire was sent to a sample of five hundred high schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Although many of the items in the questionnaire applied to all students in high school regardless of their ability or interests, the questionnaire was organized to ascertain the value and use of various approaches in the education of nonacademic pupils.

THE COMPOSITION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Many writers have emphasized that the adjustment of the mentally retarded, the slow learners, and the educationally retarded would not be greatly facilitated if they were all put into the same special class with the same methods and materials. Thus, it is essential to know why the pupil does not learn effectively. A different approach with different methods and materials will be needed with pupils who are retarded because of mental deficiency than with pupils who are retarded because of lack of interest. The questionnaire was composed of methods of identification, techniques of adapting the curriculum, administrative procedures, teaching methods, and in-service education ideas for educating nonacademic pupils.

A. *Identifying the Nonacademic Pupil*

This area was concerned with items relating to the value and use of intelligence tests, grades, teacher referral, and other procedures which might be useful in gaining valuable information to be used in identifying nonacademic pupils.

B. *Adapting the Curriculum*

The problem of what to teach non-academic pupils is foremost in many educators' minds. This portion of the questionnaire was concerned with this problem and contained items on gaining social competence, occupational adjustment, and factors in other areas of general education.

C. *Administrative Procedures for Educating Nonacademic Pupils*

Many techniques which may be used by an interested, sympathetic administrator in providing for nonacademic pupils were listed in this section. Items relating to the value of special classes, types of equipment, materials, and other provisions were presented. The frequency with which these procedures were used by the responding schools was also ascertained.

D. *The Teacher and the Nonacademic Pupil*

The importance of good teachers for nonacademic pupils cannot be over-emphasized. Many authors pointed out that the success of an educational program for nonacademic pupils depended mainly on the teacher. How the materials are used by the teacher is important. What methods the teacher employs has much to do with the success of curricular adaptations. How the teacher provides for individual differences affects the degree of achievement in any program for nonacademic pupils. The items in this section were concerned with these issues.

E. *In-Service Education of Teachers to Assist Them in Educating Nonacademic Pupils*

The number of teachers who are trained to teach nonacademic pupils is very limited. Consequently, many of the teachers who are concerned with nonacademic education must acquire needed insights and techniques through in-service education. The effectiveness of various in-service education procedures in helping teachers of nonacademic pupils is considered in this section of the questionnaire.

THE ANALOGOUS QUESTIONNAIRES

A. *The Recommended Schools*

State superintendents of public instruction were asked to recommend schools in their states which were doing significant work in educating nonacademic pupils. These recommended schools were sent the basic questionnaire with one additional page. The respondents were asked to discuss in more detail on this page the items they believed to be more important in each of the areas. Valuable information from these schools which were considered as doing significant work was thus obtained.

B. *The Authorities*

The authorities were asked to rate the value of each item in the education of nonacademic pupils. Consequently, the questionnaire sent to the authorities contained only an evaluation scale, but, otherwise, was the same as the basic questionnaire.

TECHNIQUES OF OBTAINING THE DATA

A. *The Selected Schools*

The basic questionnaire with a letter of transmittal which explained the study was sent to a randomly selected sample of five hundred member high schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. These high schools were divided into four classifications:

1. Less than two hundred.
2. From 200 to 499.

3. From 500 to 999.
4. One thousand or more.

The number of schools in each classification which returned the questionnaire is presented in Table I.

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTION OF RETURNS OF SAMPLE SCHOOLS

Classification	Number sent	Number of replies	Per cent
1000 or more	71	56	79
500 to 999	110	81	74
200 to 499	192	128	67
Less than 200	127	91	72
All schools	500	356	71

B. *The Recommended Schools*

Seventy-six questionnaires were sent to the recommended schools. Fifty-four replies were received which represented a 71 percent return.

Some state superintendents when asked to designate schools did not reply; some suggested junior high schools which were not used; and, it may be significant, some stated they knew of no schools in their respective states doing noteworthy work with nonacademic pupils at the high school level.

C. *The Authorities*

A study of the literature determined persons who by virtue of their training, publications, and area of work could be classified as authorities in this field. In order to qualify, at least two and preferably three or more of the following criteria should have been met:

1. The person may have had articles published in periodicals or have written books on some phase of education for nonacademic pupils.
2. The person may have taught or may be teaching college courses pertaining to some phase of educating nonacademic pupils.
3. The person may have been in a position as director of special education or in some similar position which pertained to the education of nonacademic pupils.
4. The person may have done extensive graduate work in the field of educating nonacademic pupils.
5. The person may have acted as a consultant in a

workshop or seminar devoted to some aspect of educating nonacademic pupils.

6. The person may have been chairman or a member of a statewide or similar committee dealing with the education of nonacademic pupils.
7. The person may have held an office or have been an active member in professional organizations which are concerned with special education as it relates to nonacademic pupils on the state, national, or international level.

Twenty-nine replies were received from forty questionnaires sent to persons selected as authorities. This represented a 73 percent return.

D. *The Rating Scales*

Three rating scales were used on the questionnaires sent to the two groups of schools. Two scales contrasted the amount each item was used with nonacademic students and with other students. The third scale was concerned with the value of each item in the education of nonacademic pupils and was used with all three groups of respondents.

The first scale: This scale in the questionnaire referred to the extent the item was used with students other than nonacademic and had the following ratings:

- (a) very often
- (b) often
- (c) some
- (d) never

The second scale: The extent an item was used with nonacademic pupils compared with the amount it was used with students other than nonacademic composed the second scale, which had the following ratings:

- (A) much more
- (B) more
- (C) the same
- (D) less

The third scale: This scale involved an evaluation of each item in terms of its effectiveness in educating nonacademic pupils and was the only rating scale on the questionnaire sent to the authorities. This evaluation scale had the following ratings:

- (3) Very valuable.
- (2) Of some value.
- (1) Of little value.
- (0) Of no value.

One additional rating, (N) no opinion, was included in the rating scale on the questionnaire for the authorities.

WHAT THIS PAMPHLET ATTEMPTS TO DO

This pamphlet attempts to set forth the results of the study on practices of educating nonacademic pupils in high school. It is recognized that the results and any conclusions which may be drawn apply only to the high schools in the sample, the recommended high schools, and the authorities who made up the jury.

A report of the findings in each area of the study will be made in the succeeding chapters with conclusions and recommendations which were derived from the data.

Applicable results from other studies in this area are summarized in the appropriate chapters. There is no attempt to report the entire findings of these studies. Only those items which apply to the immediate area are discussed.

CHAPTER II

HOW CAN WE IDENTIFY THE NONACADEMIC PUPIL?

THE IDENTIFICATION of nonacademic pupils is very important in most high schools. Not only is it desirable to find these pupils and ascertain their needs so that they may be helped, but, as different types of retarded pupils are included in the nonacademic category, it is necessary to find the reasons for their retardation. In many instances, curriculum materials, teaching techniques, and class assignments will need to vary from one type of nonacademic pupil to another. The provisions made to help the pupil are contingent upon the cause of the pupil's failure to learn effectively.

WHAT PREVIOUS STUDIES HAVE REVEALED

A survey of the literature on identifying nonacademic pupils revealed that intelligence tests, achievement tests, and teacher referrals were recommended most often for high schools. Using the cumulative record and interest inventories was also discussed and recommended by some authors.

A. Teaching Rapid and Slow Learners in High Schools

This study¹ by the staff of the Office of Education indicated that group intelligence tests and standardized achievement tests were used extensively in discovering both rapid and slow learners. Individual intelligence tests were reported as seldom used except by large high schools. Teacher estimates of achievement, including teacher marks, were also listed as being used a great deal for discovering slow learners.

B. Educating the Mentally Handicapped in Secondary Schools

This bulletin² issued by the Illinois State Department of Education reported

¹ U. S. Office of Education, *Teaching Rapid and Slow Learners in High Schools* (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1954), pp. 14-15.

² Samuel Kirk, et al., *Educating the Mentally Handicapped in the Secondary Schools*, Illinois

that the most adequate method for determining placement of a child in a program for the mentally handicapped was a thorough examination by a qualified psychological examiner. This diagnosis should be based on

1. Verbal intelligence tests.
2. Performance intelligence tests.
3. School history.
4. Social maturity.
5. Personality and social adjustment.
6. Physical and medical records.

FINDINGS OF THIS STUDY

A. The Use of Intelligence Test Scores

The respondents in this study reported that intelligence test scores were one very valuable means of identifying nonacademic pupils, but that these scores should not be considered as the sole factor for identification. Because intelligence tests measure only one aptitude of the pupil, a distorted or twisted picture may be obtained when these scores are used in isolation.

Types of tests.—Group intelligence tests were regarded as valuable for screening purposes but should be followed by individual tests of a nonverbal nature. Scores on individual, non-verbal, intelligence tests were used more by the responding schools and were considered more valuable in identifying nonacademic pupils by all respondents than were the scores from the group tests which require a high degree of verbal ability.

The data also indicated that the use of two or more intelligence test scores was valuable in identifying nonacademic pupils and that this method was used often with all types of students.

Recommended tests.—In the course of this study, various intelligence tests were reported as being used. Those which were the most widely reported are listed below with the test considered most valuable

Secondary Curriculum Program (Springfield: Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1951), pp. 11-12.

listed first:

Group intelligence tests.

1. California Test of Mental Maturity (Short form).
2. Henmon-Nelson Tests of Mental Ability.
3. Terman-McNemar Tests of Mental Ability.
4. Revised Otis Quick-Scoring.

Individual intelligence tests.

1. Revised Stanford-Binet Test of Intelligence.
2. Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale.
3. Columbia Mental Maturity Test.
4. Arthur Point Scale of Performance Tests.

B. *The Use of Other Identifying Factors*

Other significant factors in identifying nonacademic pupils as indicated by the data from this study were these:

1. The cumulative record.
2. Interest inventories.
3. Achievement scores in academic subjects.
4. Referral from teachers.
5. Recommendations from counselors after suitable conferences and home visitation.
6. A qualified psychologist's recommendation.

The cumulative record.—It is important to understand that the cumulative record, usually in folder form, contains anecdotal reports, attendance records, health data, the grade record, disciplinary reports, and many other items. Data from these sources help to give a more complete picture of the individual pupil.

Teacher referral.—Referrals from teachers were not stressed as strongly as other items, but the data indicated that, in practical usage, these referrals along with teachers' opinions and disciplinary records played an important part in identifying nonacademic pupils. In view of this, it would seem important to educate teachers in what to look for in identifying nonacademic pupils.

Psychologists' recommendations.—Many high schools in the sample reported that they had no psychologist available for referral purposes. However, the authorities, in addition to the recommended schools, considered the use of a qualified psychologist's recommendation very important in identifying pupils. These data would tend to lend support to the viewpoint that qualified psychologists should

be an integral part of all larger school systems.

Questionable factors.—The indications from the responses were that factors such as problem check-lists, self-rating scales, and personality inventories were not used a great deal in identifying nonacademic pupils. Such factors were considered of little value except as a source of supplementary information.

C. *Special Reports from Recommended Schools*

The recommended schools were asked to discuss in more detail the methods they considered the most important in identifying nonacademic pupils. Thirty-seven of these schools submitted special remarks on identifying these pupils.

Recommended methods of identification.—The most frequently mentioned means of identification are listed below with the percent of the schools that designated each item.

1. Use standardized test scores—84 percent.
2. Use teachers' observations and opinions—54 percent.
3. Use the achievement record—49 percent.
4. Use counselors' recommendations—19 percent.
5. Use the attendance record—14 percent.

Many items such as socio-economic background, elementary school information, health data, and reading scores were mentioned less frequently but could have been included under the category of the cumulative record. If this had been done, this category would have had a high percent of designations. It is also obvious that some of the items listed above would have been included in this same category.

Representative remarks.—A few of the remarks and discussions from the recommended schools on identifying nonacademic pupils are presented below:

Use intelligence tests, achievement tests, and teachers' grades. Attendance record. Discipline record.

Achievement in academic subjects and periodic individual intelligence tests plus teachers' opinions of child's capacity.

A composite picture of: (1) anecdotal records—observations, group and individual; (2) achievement

test results; (3) mental maturity test results—multifactor; (4) physical data; (5) academic progress; (6) attendance record; and (7) participation in activities.

Such students should be identified on a multiple-factor basis—physiological and mental tests; education; socio-economic background; past academic record. The investigation of home circumstances should not be omitted.

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

Educators should always keep this thought in the forefront: nonacademic pupils—the slow learners, the mentally retarded, the educationally retarded—can benefit from the right type of education and become useful, participating citizens. One of the main problems, however, is to discover these pupils and expose them to the right kind of education. Thus, the problem of identifying the nonacademic pupil is of grave importance.

Many authors in this field and many of the recommended schools strongly stressed that a composite or multiple-factor basis of identification should be used in order to get as complete a picture as possible of the individual. From this and from the accumulated data, it seems feasible to conclude that a many-pronged

approach should be made to identifying nonacademic pupils.

The most important factors to be included in this many-pronged approach are the following:

1. Use the cumulative record.
2. Include at least one individual intelligence test score.
3. Use two or more intelligence test scores.
4. Include recommendations from counselors.
5. Make use of teacher referrals.
6. Use a qualified psychologist's recommendation.

Teachers and administrators in smaller high schools may feel that these procedures can't be utilized in their schools since some are not available. However, much valuable information for identifying nonacademic pupils can be obtained from the cumulative record, teachers' recommendations, previous grades, and the socio-economic background. An expensive, new program of identification need not be introduced. Making effective use of available information is much more feasible since some beneficial action may result. Too many administrators tend to do little or nothing when they do not have the funds for an expanded testing program, a large guidance department, and a consulting psychologist.

CHAPTER III

HOW CAN THE CURRICULUM BE ADAPTED?

THE IMPORTANCE of formulating specific curricular goals for nonacademic pupils has been pointed out by many writers. These pupils learn slowly and forget rather quickly. They are characterized by limited powers of self-direction, short attention and concentration spans, a slowness to form associations between words and ideas, and the failure to recognize familiar elements in new situations. The limited mental initiative is emphasized by an inability to solve problems, to analyze, or to reach decisions. The lack of ability to work with abstractions and to generalize necessitates the inclusion of many concrete applications and practical firsthand experiences.

The development of a suitable curriculum in the high school was termed as considerably more difficult than in the elementary school. The high schools were more firmly bound by college entrance requirements, the traditions of academic scholarship, and the regulations of accrediting agencies. However, some authors reported that the high schools were becoming more cognizant of their responsibilities for these pupils and were taking steps to develop a more suitable curriculum.

WHAT PREVIOUS STUDIES HAVE REVEALED

A. Curriculum Provision for Mentally Retarded Adolescents

It was pointed out in this article¹ that, in curriculum adaptation, the following areas were important:

1. Physical and mental health.
2. Home building and home membership.
3. Social relations and social studies.
4. Occupational education.

It was further emphasized that a school-work-experience program was one aspect

¹ Paul Voelker, "Curriculum Provision for Mentally Retarded Adolescents," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, Vol. 39 (January 1955), p. 35.

of curricular organization which was very important to slow learners.

B. Educating the Mentally Handicapped in the Secondary Schools

In discussing the construction of a curriculum for the mentally handicapped, this bulletin² pointed out that it was necessary to define the needs of these pupils and to organize an educational program for them. Nine needs of high school youth which had been formulated by a previous committee were listed since mentally-handicapped pupils do not differ basically from other youth as far as needs are concerned.

1. Mastering the tools of communication . . .
2. Developing a strong body and a sound attitude toward it and toward good health practices . . .
3. Developing satisfactory social relationships with other adolescents and adults . . .
4. Understanding and appreciating the values of family life together with a desire for and the ability to improve family living . . .
5. Acquiring knowledge of, practice in, and zeal for democratic processes . . .
6. Becoming sensitive to the importance of group action in the attainment of social goals and proficient in the skills involved in such action . . .
7. Becoming an effective consumer . . .
8. Becoming occupationally adjusted . . .
9. Developing meaning for life . . .

C. Curriculum Adjustments for the Mentally Retarded

The more seriously deficient in intellect were the concern of this bulletin.³ These mentally retarded were not the slow learners but were those academically unable to meet the requirements of even a diluted high school academic curriculum.

The function of this bulletin was to present the fundamental principles involved in making curriculum adjustments,

² Samuel Kirk, et al., *Educating the Mentally Handicapped in the Secondary Schools*. Illinois Secondary Curriculum Program (Springfield: Superintendent of Public Instruction), 1951, p. 13.

³ Elise Martens, *Curriculum Adjustments for the Mentally Retarded*, Bulletin No. 2 (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1950).

to point out desirable bases for the selection of content, and to show how such activities could be coordinated into units of experience. The main emphasis with regard to adolescent students was on the occupational point of view and the ideals of homemaking and civic responsibility.

FINDINGS OF THIS STUDY

In accordance with these previous studies and the emphasis of other authors in this field, five sections were formulated in this area of adapting the curriculum to meet the needs of nonacademic pupils. These five sections contained items which included the needs as propounded by various committees, authors, and commissions. These five sections are as follows.

1. Developing essential abilities.
2. Educating for the democratic way of life.
3. Becoming occupationally adjusted.
4. Acquiring social competency.
5. Learning to use leisure time well.

A. *Developing Essential Abilities*

Eight different abilities were listed in this section. The data with regard to the degree these abilities were sought for nonacademic pupils and the value of each goal indicated that the following abilities were important in the education of these pupils and should be stressed:

1. Ability to maintain good work habits.
2. Ability to follow oral and written instructions.
3. Ability to handle everyday number concepts.
4. Ability to transfer information and skills learned in school to concrete situations.
5. Ability to ask and answer questions accurately.

These abilities are listed in the order of their significance as determined by the respondents.

The data also indicated that some abilities were not so important in the education of nonacademic pupils. Since these pupils would be unable to grasp or would have great difficulty in attaining these abilities, the respondents considered them as less important. The following are those which were considered less essential:

1. Ability to organize ideas into sequence.

2. Ability to locate specific information (reference books, dictionary, etc.).
3. Ability to skim material rapidly to get the meaning or to find the answer.

B. *Educating for the Democratic Way of Life*

The responses in this section with regard to the degree of importance for educating the nonacademic pupils indicated that the following objectives were very important. The three most important goals are listed first.

1. Learn to exercise responsibility for one's own conduct and for that of others.
2. Learn to recognize the importance and dignity of each individual.
3. Learn to value differences in opinions, interests, and abilities among individuals.
4. Learn and practice democratic procedures for selecting leaders.
5. Learn to work in committees or small groups in making decisions and in carrying them out.
6. Learn the procedures of discussion and compromise in arriving at intelligent decisions.

The respondents indicated that the goal of learning how to be a democratic leader was not so valuable for nonacademic pupils as the other goals. It would seem that nonacademic youth would be less likely to realize this objective, and therefore, one should place the emphasis on the more attainable goals.

C. *Becoming Occupationally Adjusted*

Improving the ability to hold a job and to support oneself were considered by many authors as more important to nonacademic pupils than to the other students in high school. The respondents considered three of the objectives in this section to be very important in educating nonacademic pupils. These important ones were:

1. Learning how to find, procure, and keep a job.
2. Learning how to get along with fellow workers and one's employer.
3. Gaining an understanding of one's own abilities and limitations.

Other objectives in this section which were considered valuable in educating nonacademic pupils were:

1. Gaining an understanding and appreciation of the moral and ethical responsibility to one's employer and fellow employees.

2. Learning the physical and educational requirements for various jobs in the community.
3. Learning the availability of jobs in the area.

D. *Acquiring Social Competency*

This section was concerned with the ability to get along in a community without supervision. Many of the expressed needs of adolescents were included in the items in this section. Those objectives which were considered most valuable by the respondents for educating nonacademic pupils were:

1. Learning respect for the laws of the community and the nation.
2. Gaining an appreciation and understanding of the values of home and family life.
3. Learning methods of developing and maintaining good health and physical fitness.
4. Gaining an understanding of community responsibilities.
5. Learning how to be an effective consumer.
6. Learning methods of meeting and working with others.

Other goals in this section were not considered as valuable for nonacademic pupils and therefore were sought less than the ones listed above. These less-important goals again are the type which would be more difficult for nonacademic pupils to understand and to apply in practical situations. These less-significant goals were:

1. Gaining information about various community agencies.
2. Learning about budgets, banking procedures, etc.
3. Gaining an understanding of the effect of science on our lives and learning something of scientific methods.

E. *Learning to Use Leisure Time Well*

The value of learning to use leisure time well was emphasized by Harold Meyer⁴ in his description of how recreation has taken its place along with education, work, religion, and health in community well-being. He stressed that the arts of leisure should be taught so that students could live better themselves and live better with others. Thus we see that the effective use of leisure time is an important factor

in social adjustment and in good citizenship.

The data in this section indicated that all of the objectives were valuable in the education of nonacademic youth and that the responding schools sought these objectives to the same degree for nonacademic pupils as for other high school students. The objectives are listed below in the order of their significance as determined by the responses:

1. Encourage participation in extra-curricular activities including inter-school athletics.
2. Develop hobby interests in music, art, industrial arts, household arts, etc.
3. Encourage membership in various interest clubs (photography, rifle, archery, etc.) in the school and in the community.
4. Learn how to find good substitutes for inferior comic books and magazines.
5. Gain skills in such activities as golf, tennis, bowling, dancing, swimming, etc.
6. Learn how to select and evaluate movie, radio, and television programs.

F. *Special Reports from Recommended Schools*

In the analogous questionnaire sent to the recommended schools, these schools were asked to discuss more fully the goals they believed to be most important in educating nonacademic pupils and the most important and useful adaptations of the curriculum for meeting the needs of nonacademic pupils.

Important goals.—Thirty-five recommended schools submitted pertinent remarks for goals they considered the most important for nonacademic pupils. A summary of the most frequent responses is presented below with the percent of the schools that designated each item.

1. Civic competence—43 percent.
2. Occupational and vocational skills—40 percent.
3. Social competence—29 percent.
4. Mastery of the fundamentals—26 percent.
5. Economic competence—23 percent.
6. Values of home and family—20 percent.
7. A feeling of importance—of being needed—a sense of achievement—17 percent.
8. Learning to get along with people—14 percent.

Adapting the curriculum.—Comments from the recommended schools on the most important and useful adaptations of

⁴ Harold Meyer, "Recreation" (an unpublished lecture given at the University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado, July 24, 1956).

the curriculum are summarized below. The curricular adaptations which were reported most frequently are listed with the percent of schools that designated each procedure.

1. Use work-study programs—38 percent.
2. Provide vocational courses—33 percent.
3. Make classwork more practical—24 percent.
4. Assign students in areas where they can meet success—19 percent.
5. Provide special classes in required academic subjects—14 percent.

Representative reports on goals.—The following are remarks from the recommended schools concerning the most important goals for nonacademic pupils:

Goals to be attained should be acquiring social competence, developing a healthy personality, becoming economically self-sufficient, and developing a reasonable, acceptable, attitude toward themselves.

Requisite goals are for occupational and social competency. All "roads" should lead in the direction of these two concepts.

- (a) Good citizens—self-directive and responsible.
 (b) Self-sufficient economically. (c) Hobbies and leisure time pursuits. (d) A feeling of importance—of being needed.

To be good members of society, to establish wholesome family life, to be capable of self and family support, to hold their own in society, to vote intelligently, to be good followers.

Personal and social development necessary to accept routine, discipline, and responsibility. Establish good work attitudes.

Representative remarks on curricular adaptations.—The discussion and remarks of the recommended schools on how the curriculum might be adapted for educating nonacademic pupils are reported below:

Adapt the curriculum to insure success for each individual daily in at least some phase of academic work. Make all academic work as practical as possible. Begin on the child's achievement level regardless of age.

Less abstract reasoning and more experience with tangibles.

Curricula should not be adapted. They should be reorganized and made operative in terms of real-academic students' needs, interests, and abilities.

The program should be student-centered rather than academic. A school-work program is necessary. Ample opportunity for vocational training in many fields should be offered. Such a training program definitely should be adapted to the needs of the community. Our sales program is an excellent ex-

ample of the school-community work program for the student.

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

The results of the study in this area indicate to teachers and administrators that the curricular emphasis for non-academic pupils should be on social adjustment, occupational self-sufficiency, and citizenship preparation.

It is recognized that the objectives listed as important in this area do not represent all of the desirable objectives. It is hoped, however, that these items will serve as guideposts in each section so that an interesting, practical program can be evolved for nonacademic pupils.

It is suggested that an educational program be initiated for nonacademic pupils which will include the essential abilities listed as important earlier in this chapter. This program should also include the significant objectives from the section on educating for the democratic way of life; the items which were considered important in aiding occupational self-sufficiency; and the important objectives in gaining social competency and in using leisure time well.

Formulating a curriculum which will include and emphasize these many objectives will be difficult for the administrator and the teacher. Recommendations from authors in this field indicate that a core program encompassing two hours or more with an outstanding, qualified teacher seems to offer the best way to attain these objectives. Required subjects should be included in this core curriculum. Non-academic pupils should be in the same classes as other students in elective courses, such as physical education, industrial arts, home economics, and art or music.

It would be well to recognize that most of the nonacademic pupils will become a part of the unskilled or semi-skilled labor force. Many of them will become helpers, work in service capacities, or do repetitive labor. Consequently, the educa-

tional program for these youth must be simple and practical with concrete applications to everyday life.

The nonacademic pupil will and should marry, rear a family, and participate in community affairs. The educational program should help fit these pupils for entering into adult life and assuming the consequent responsibilities of citizenship and

family life. These pupils are unable to write involved reports, to read and understand many of the books, and to do abstract reasoning or make adequate comparisons. It is necessary that the teacher and the administrator recognize these disabilities so that the educational program may be adequately and effectively formulated.

CHAPTER IV

WHAT ARE SOME EFFECTIVE ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURES?

THE IMPORTANCE of a sympathetic administrator in planning and implementing the education of nonacademic pupils has been emphasized by various writers in the literature. Teachers who are interested in experimentation, who want to try new approaches and techniques, need and should receive encouragement. The administrator should work with teachers to formulate a plan, to devise a method of cooperative attack, on the problem of educating nonacademic youth. Committees should be organized, materials should be available, and equipment should be provided for effectively establishing this program of education.

WHAT PREVIOUS STUDIES HAVE REVEALED

Many of the previous studies have pointed out the necessity and value of certain administrative practices. Some of the recommended procedures were applicable to larger schools only, but many of the methods pertained to schools of any size.

A. Programs for the Education of Mentally Handicapped Children

A memorandum¹ resulted from the requests by the NEA Research Division in 1953 for information about several areas of service, including mentally handicapped children. The replies from schools which had programs for the mentally-handicapped were summarized. In the area of administrative procedures, questions of the size and location of classes, transportation, the age of pupils, cooperative arrangements with other school districts, and routines for securing special study of a child were discussed.

B. Report from the Seminar on the Slow Learner

A seminar was held in Philadelphia in October, 1955, to discuss educating the slow learner. Portions of this report² were concerned with administrative procedures.

This seminar was attended largely by administrators and teachers of the Philadelphia schools. They listed effective means of supplying materials and equipment and of organizing classes in schools. However, they thought their present wealth of material should be used to a far greater extent. They recommended that a central display of materials and equipment should be made with provisions for a movable display of materials that could be taken directly to the schools.

School organization.—The members of the seminar agreed that individual schools would have to analyze their problems and select the type of organization that fitted their needs best. However, the seminar group recommended the following:

1. The program must be one that is not too different from that of the rest of the school since adolescents feel the need of belonging.
2. Ability grouping within the regular organization seems to offer the best integration with the average school program.
3. There should be smaller classes with possibly more than one period spent with the same teacher.
4. School-work programs were desirable, but need time and supervision.

C. Teaching Rapid and Slow Learners in High Schools

One part of this study³ included twenty-three provisions which a high school administrator could make to facilitate the education of rapid-learning and slow-learning pupils. Each high school principal was asked to check "yes" or "no" to indicate whether or not the provisions were being used in his school. These provisions were divided into three sections: one for

¹ NEA Research Memorandum, "Programs for the Education of Mentally Handicapped Children," *National Education Association Research Division*, (February, 1955).

² *Report from the Seminar on the Slow Learner in the Senior High and Vocational-Technical Schools*, (Philadelphia: Curriculum Office, Philadelphia Public Schools, 1955).

³ U. S. Office of Education, *Teaching Rapid and Slow Learners in High Schools* (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1954), pp. 6-9.

both rapid and slow learners; the second for rapid learners only; and the third section for slow learners only. The first and third sections will be considered in the following discussion.

Provisions for both rapid and slow learners: Forty percent or more of the responding schools reported that they were using the following provisions. The items are arranged in descending order of percent of use.

1. Teachers furnished guidance information pertinent to pupils.
2. Teachers assigned on basis of traits and interests suitable for work.
3. Regular classes furnished advanced study materials and additional learning aids.
4. Space, furniture and equipment for flexible grouping in classes and activities.
5. Ability (homogeneous) classes. (Pupils grouped according to IQ, reading ability, previous grades, social maturity, etc.).
6. Individualized instruction outside of regular class hours.
7. Job placement services.
8. Supervised work experience.
9. Summer school sessions provided.
10. Credit given for demonstrated achievement regardless of time spent in class.

Provisions for slow learners only.—More than 50 percent of the responding schools reported that they were using these provisions. The items are presented in descending order of response.

1. Easy study materials related to pupils' interests.
2. Promotion of pupils on basis of physical and social development.
3. Remedial sections where performance is below capacity in basic skills.
4. Low ability classes in certain subjects.
5. Teachers assigned on basis of training and experience with slow learners.

FINDINGS OF THIS STUDY

The area of the study on administrative procedures for educating nonacademic pupils was divided into six sections as follows:

1. Provide adequate equipment for classes.
2. Arrange special classes to meet students' needs.
3. Provide adequate materials.
4. Provide good teachers for special classes.
5. Provide evaluative procedures for special classes.
6. Establish a separate laboratory school for students.

A. *Provide Adequate Equipment for Classes*

All of the provisions in this section of the questionnaire were considered by the respondents to be very valuable in the education of nonacademic pupils. These provisions are listed below. The first four were stressed as being particularly important.

1. Provide audio-visual equipment (projectors, recorders, record players, etc.).
2. Provide homemaking equipment for teaching courses in home and family living.
3. Provide equipment for work in crafts.
4. Provide work tables.
5. Provide adequate chalkboard space.
6. Have duplicating equipment available.
7. Provide movable classroom furniture.

B. *Arrange Special Classes to Meet Students' Needs*

Four of the provisions in this section were considered very important in the education of nonacademic pupils. These items along with two others of somewhat less importance are listed below in order of their value.

1. Establish a school-sponsored work-experience program in practically all job areas.
2. Schedule remedial classes for students who are deficient in the fundamental processes.
3. Provide elective courses in various interest areas.
4. Provide core classes which incorporate academic subjects.
5. Limit the size of special classes to a maximum of twenty-five pupils.
6. Form special sections of regular courses by ability grouping with different requirements for each section.

Many writers in this field have particularly stressed the need for special classes and work-experience programs for nonacademic pupils.

It is interesting to note that two items in this section were not considered too valuable and were not used too frequently with nonacademic pupils. These provisions were:

1. Schedule longer class periods to provide supervised study time.
2. Form special classes to teach desirable attitudes and skills.

C. *Provide Adequate Materials*

The most important provisions in

supplying adequate materials for the education of nonacademic pupils appeared from the data to be these:

1. Providing reading materials suited to the ages and interests of students.
2. Assisting teachers in preparing needed materials.
3. Providing materials for audio-visual presentations.
4. Having needed reference materials available.
5. Providing recreational reading materials at various reading levels.
6. Assisting teachers in obtaining usable free materials.
7. Providing a central library of materials to be used in special classes.

Four separate items were presented under the audio-visual provision. These items are listed below in the order of value.

1. Provide suitable films and film-strips.
2. Schedule field trips and excursions.
3. Provide feasible recordings.
4. Provide adequate maps and charts.

One other item in this section was of particular interest. This was:

Provide consumable workbooks on the level of pupil interest and ability.

This provision was considered less valuable than the other provisions even though it was used more with nonacademic pupils than were some other items in this section.

D. Provide Good Teachers for Special Classes

Many respondents stressed that without good teachers any program of education for nonacademic pupils would be carried on with little success and great difficulty. Various authors have emphasized that the success of any special class program will depend, for the most part, on the competency and skill of the teacher in each special class.

This section was the longest and one of the most important in this area. The seven procedures which were considered most valuable in selecting teachers for nonacademic pupils are presented below.

1. Assign only teachers who have expressed a preference or willingness for special classes.
2. Assign teachers who have a better-than-average

understanding of individual student problems and the ability to undergo frequent frustrations.

3. Assign specially trained, competent teachers.
4. Assign teachers who are emotionally stable, mature, and who have flexible personalities with a sense of humor, good health, patience, and enthusiasm.
5. Provide a clearing house to collect and disseminate ideas, methods, and materials to teachers of special classes.
6. Insure cooperation by obtaining general faculty approval for the program of special classes.
7. Provide additional planning time for teachers of special classes.

Two provisions were rated as having little or no value in educating nonacademic pupils:

1. Assign teachers to special classes who have taught the particular subject the longest.
2. Provide increased pay for special class teachers.

E. Provide Evaluative Procedures for Special Classes

One difficulty which teachers of nonacademic pupils face is that of evaluating the work these pupils do. Three procedures in this section were considered significant in helping solve the problem of evaluation. These provisions were:

1. Holding students to a reasonable standard of accomplishment based on their ability.
2. Promoting students when there is evidence of growth.
3. When determining a grade, measuring progress by the student's ability.

F. Establish a Separate Laboratory School for Students

The most feasible conclusion from the data concerning separate laboratory schools for nonacademic pupils was that these schools were used very little and were of questionable value.

G. Special Reports from Recommended Schools

The recommended schools were asked to discuss more fully the administrative procedures which they believed to be most effective in assisting the education of nonacademic pupils. The main items discussed by these schools are given below with the percent of those stressing each one.

1. Assign well-trained, competent teachers—40 percent.
2. Provide a good guidance program—30 percent.
3. Limit the size of classes—27 percent.
4. Provide adequate equipment—20 percent.
5. Provide special classes—20 percent.
6. Provide a good testing program—20 percent.
7. Use ability grouping—17 percent.
8. Provide adequate materials—17 percent.
9. Use good scheduling procedures—17 percent.
10. Provide frequent curriculum revision—17 percent.
11. Provide in-service education for teachers of nonacademic pupils—13 percent.

The fact that these schools discussed these items served to emphasize their importance in educating nonacademic pupils. Others less frequently mentioned were:

1. A work-experience program.
2. Modified marking provisions.
3. Core curricula.
4. Released time for teachers of nonacademic classes.

Representative remarks.—A few of the representative remarks of the recommended schools with regard to administrative procedures are presented below.

Limitation of each class to fifteen or twenty pupils. Twenty should be the maximum number. Homogeneous groupings according to ability. Regular planning sessions, at which time the teachers involved could meet to discuss problems, methods, and materials.

Provision of adequate facilities, equipment, etc. Provision of well-trained and competent teachers—then adequate encouragement and support of the teachers. Grouping for certain purposes, such as remedial reading, consumer math, etc.

Flexibility of program including relaxation of "credits" for graduation. Breaking from traditional single-subject teacher in the secondary school. More attempts to establish "core" program.

Effective administrative procedures would include special trained instructors for the nonacademic students, more grouping according to abilities, a broad school-work program, extensive individual

counseling, shops and equipment available for the development of special skills.

On the secondary level avoid isolation from other students if possible. Have these students assigned to a teacher who will have released time to work with these youth several hours per day.

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

The most important recommendation to be evolved from the factors in this area is that teachers and administrators must actively cooperate to make the program of educating nonacademic pupils succeed. If teachers and administrators are not enthusiastic but merely regard this program of education as an added "chore," there is little likelihood of success.

Other procedures which appear to be valuable in educating nonacademic pupils are these:

1. Assigning competent, enthusiastic teachers to classes for nonacademic pupils.
2. Arranging special classes for nonacademic pupils in required subjects which provide more than one period with the special teacher.
3. Providing and utilizing adequate equipment.
4. Organizing special provisions so that nonacademic pupils are not isolated as "queer" people.
5. Providing and utilizing adequate, interesting materials.

In schools where it is not feasible to organize special classes, many of the provisions of this section will not apply. However, good teachers will use a variety of materials if available and can do a better job of teaching all pupils if adequate equipment is forthcoming. Administrative assistance is still necessary to help these teachers. Any teacher who tries to provide for individual differences within a class should be given every encouragement and aid that the administrator can provide.

CHAPTER V

HOW DOES THE TEACHER WORK WITH THE NONACADEMIC PUPIL?

THE IMPORTANCE of the teacher is especially emphasized in the education of non-academic pupils. In this area more than in most, teachers need to be especially concerned with the worth of each individual and the importance of that individual's contribution and potential usefulness. It has been pointed out by writers in this field that even though the curriculum is revised, ample materials and equipment are provided, and new methods are introduced, the success of the educational program for nonacademic pupils will depend on the teacher.

WHAT PREVIOUS STUDIES HAVE REVEALED

It is rather difficult to conduct a study on how a teacher works with nonacademic pupils. So much that is done depends on the attitude and philosophy of the teacher and upon intangible factors that preclude measurement. However, some studies have reported findings which apply.

A. *Teaching Rapid and Slow Learners in High Schools*

Although techniques by which administrative and guidance personnel can assist the classroom teacher are described, this study¹ emphasizes that an equal, if not greater, role remains for the teacher. Some of the procedures which the teacher might use are listed below.

1. The teacher adapts methods, uses materials, and provides experiences suitable to the individual requirements of his pupils.
2. The teacher provides enrichment opportunities, organizes small groups and committees, and suggests individual projects.
3. The teacher motivates continuous developmental growth, encourages individual research and creative activity, and suggests reading materials within the comprehension ability of his pupils.

¹ U. S. Office of Education, *Teaching Rapid and Slow Learners in High Schools*, (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1954), pp. 78-79.

4. The teacher leads boys and girls to evaluate and chart their progress in the direction of significant goals.

Practices and procedures in six subject-matter divisions are presented also.

B. *Report from the Seminar of the Slow Learner*

In the report² of the highlights of group thinking at this seminar, the following teaching techniques were regarded as having proved successful with slow learners:

1. Simplification.
2. Use of concrete materials.
3. Visualization.
4. Experience approach centered around life problems.
5. Praise for pupils.
6. Trips and speakers.
7. Oral expression.
8. Differentiated levels of reading materials.
9. Short units and immediate goals.
10. Continuing valuation.

The seminar group evolved the following characteristics for the teacher of slow learners:

1. Should be specially trained.
2. Should be able to stand up under a succession of frustrating experiences.
3. Should be willing to explore areas outside his field.
4. Must possess a knowledge of the learning processes and have a broad background.
5. Must have faith in the pupil, respect for him, and willingness to teach him.
6. Should be understanding and yet objective.
7. Must have patience, perseverance, a sense of humor, resourcefulness, vitality, flexibility, and stability.
8. Must be secure within himself.
9. Must be a sincere, out-going individual, having love for his fellow human beings.

FINDINGS OF THIS STUDY

Many respondents indicated that, in their opinion, this was the most important

² *Report from the Seminar on the Slow Learner in the Senior High and Vocational-Technical Schools*, (Philadelphia: Curriculum Office, Philadelphia Public Schools, 1955), pp. 1-2.

part of the study. In general, the methods and techniques of this part of the questionnaire were ranked higher or were given more value than those in the other areas.

This area on the teacher and the non-academic pupil was divided into three sections as follows:

1. Teachers recognize individual differences.
2. Teachers adapt methods for nonacademic pupils.
3. Teachers adapt materials for nonacademic pupils.

A. Teachers Recognize Individual Differences

The authorities rated all of the methods of recognizing individual differences in this section as very valuable for educating nonacademic pupils. The two groups of responding schools agreed with the very valuable ratings with the exception of one method. This exception is presented last in the following listing of the valuable methods of this section in the order of their significance:

1. Maintaining an attitude of helpfulness and fairness toward all students regardless of ability.
2. Avoiding a defeatist attitude at all times.
3. Helping each student gain a feeling of belonging.
4. Looking for physical causes behind laziness, lack of persistence, irritability, or passiveness.
5. Ascertaining each student's abilities and arranging situations so that he can succeed.
6. Giving all students an opportunity to gain status among their classmates.
7. Establishing activities which aid in improving mental health (activities to establish a sense of achievement, security, pride in accomplishments, acceptance of limitations, etc.).
8. Encouraging pupils with creative ideas, interests, and talents to develop them.
9. Using group processes to encourage pupil expression.
10. Using pupil-teacher planning whenever possible.

B. Teachers Adapt Methods for Non-academic Pupils

Of the eight procedures which made up this section, six were considered very valuable in the education of nonacademic pupils. These six items are presented below in the order of their significance.

1. Concentrating on developing comprehension at the pupil's level.
2. Building pupils' experiences around things, pro-

cesses, and activities that are real, actual, and tangible.

3. Providing as much individual assistance and coaching as possible.
4. Planning many short, well-motivated periods for learning.
5. Introducing only one new point at a time.
6. Using differentiated assignments.

The other two items, although rated as valuable, were not considered so important as the other procedures. These methods could feasibly be used effectively in some situations but they did not lend themselves as readily as the other procedures. The two less-important methods are these:

1. Scheduling many highly-motivated practice periods and frequent reviews over a long period of time.
2. Guiding pupils by suggestion and pupil-teacher planning down to the minutest detail.

C. Teachers Adapt Materials for Non-academic Pupils

The three groups of respondents—the selected schools, the recommended schools, and the authorities—rated all methods in this section as very valuable in the education of nonacademic pupils. Those who rated these items seemed to feel that the teacher should incorporate these methods into the classroom procedures for nonacademic pupils. These valuable items are listed below in the order of their importance.

1. Use materials with an appropriate vocabulary and a limited number of abstractions.
2. Insure concreteness and make experiences firsthand by relying more on demonstration, observation, films, pictures, and excursions than on books and lectures.
3. Make references explicit and use simple reference and source materials.
4. Adjust the content of materials to the pupils' everyday needs.
5. Help develop a vocabulary of frequently used words.
6. Adjust materials to the social-interest level of the class.

D. Special Reports from Recommended Schools

In discussing teaching methods, materials, and other provisions for teachers believed to be the most important in

educating nonacademic pupils, the recommended schools emphasized that the nature of the teacher was the most important factor.

Important methods.—The following methods were discussed most frequently by the recommended schools. The percent of schools which considered each item important follows the item.

1. Use appropriate materials—68 percent.
2. Use audio-visual aids—36 percent.
3. Take field trips—23 percent.
4. Use resource of persons—14 percent.
5. Relate work to the practical—14 percent.
6. Individualize instruction—14 percent.
7. Use projects and group work—14 percent.

Representative remarks.—Some of the more typical remarks and discussion from the recommended schools on the teacher and the nonacademic pupil are presented below.

Grading of materials to the level of the student is important. Patience and inspirational teaching are necessary. Given these, the methods will be appropriate.

We agreed that more individual instruction was needed. The teacher must understand the slow learner. A variation of materials must be available in ample quantities. Extensive use of community resources should be used. The instructors should be given plenty of time to organize their work.

Individual instruction, differentiated assignments, materials suited to ability, and assistance whenever possible.

Dynamic teachers of strong and magnetic personalities—suitable books, audiovisual—crafts, shops, large play and recreational areas, a varied school program that offers short periods and a healthful balance between physical and mental activities.

Appropriate vocabulary in materials, few abstractions, explicit directions and references, much audiovisual materials of all kinds, much equipment and material at grade level for attracting interest.

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

Some schools follow the policy of assigning the new or more difficult classes to the relatively new teachers. These schools follow a type of "seniority" system whereby the teacher who has been in the school longer has first choice as to what subjects or classes she will teach. Fre-

quently, then, the special classes of nonacademic pupils are left to the less-experienced teachers. This is not always bad as the newer teacher many times has an enthusiasm and an insight which are necessary if nonacademic classes are to be successful. However, the recommendation is that the best available teacher with regard to training, experience, personality, and enthusiasm be assigned these classes of nonacademic pupils. These classes are more difficult to teach since it is necessary to make so many adaptations for the various levels and since the learning process is perceptibly slower.

It is important that all teachers recognize individual differences in students, but it is of much greater importance that teachers of nonacademic pupils be cognizant of these differences and be competent in providing for them. Thus, there is the recommendation that administrators provide opportunities for teachers of nonacademic pupils to gain more knowledge in recognizing and providing for individual differences. Also teachers of nonacademic pupils should avail themselves of every occasion to gain more knowledge and insight.

All teachers use various methods in teaching their classes, but teachers of nonacademic pupils must vary their methods even more and find new techniques to interest their pupils. It is suggested that teachers of nonacademic classes use the various methods of this chapter when feasible and that these teachers be alert to try new approaches when other methods seem ineffective.

One recommended school stated, "A variation of materials must be available in ample quantities." It is recommended that administrators and teachers strive to acquire sufficient materials so that nonacademic pupils can effectively use them. These materials should, in general, be on the same subject material that other pupils have but there should be fewer abstractions and more practical applications.

CHAPTER VI

HOW CAN IN-SERVICE EDUCATION ASSIST IN TEACHING NONACADEMIC PUPILS?

PREVIOUS CHAPTERS have emphasized the importance of having a great variety of curricular materials, the need to use many different teaching techniques, and that the teacher is the key to whether or not these are used effectively. This research has shown the need to study these pupils, their background and individual differences, and then to adapt the instruction to their particular needs. The limitations of these pupils with regard to what and how they can learn have been pointed out. The authorities and the schools contributing to the study have emphasized certain skills, knowledges, attitudes, and opportunities which are generally meaningful to nonacademic pupils.

Testimony has been introduced to show that since few teachers are being educated to work with nonacademic pupils, it is essential that experienced teachers interested in working with these pupils be assigned to special classes when they are organized. In other situations, teachers of regular subjects will need to recognize nonacademic pupils in their classes and make adaptations in the instruction.

Since few well-defined programs for educating nonacademic pupils are available, each school which desires to improve its work with these pupils must start with its present faculty, bring the teachers to a consciousness of the problem, provide the best experiences from other schools, and through discussion, committee work, faculty meetings, and other devices of in-service education promote growth toward a better instructional program.

WHAT PREVIOUS STUDIES HAVE SHOWN

There seem to be very few studies on in-service education for teachers educating nonacademic pupils. However, studies have been made on the effectiveness of in-service education and on some aspects of it.

A. Report from the Seminar on the Slow Learner

These are the highlights of the group's thinking on ways to aid teachers in developing methods, techniques, and materials to accomplish growth of the slow learner in social and occupational adjustments:¹

1. A series of in-service courses.
2. Scheduled visits to other schools with successful programs for the slow learner.
3. Conferences with experienced teachers of the slow learner.
4. A laboratory demonstration school.
5. An internship for new teachers.
6. A clearing house for the collection and dissemination of methods and materials being used in Philadelphia.
7. Co-operation with teacher training institutions so that courses would be offered to student teachers in the "Teaching of the Slow Learner," including opportunities for practice teaching.

B. In-Service Growth Can Be Secured

This article² reports an early study on in-service education, entitled *A Study of In-Service Education*. Two classes of problems of in-service education are discussed:

1. Creating a school atmosphere conducive to growth—How can teachers be induced to want to grow and improve? How can the inertia of self-satisfaction be overcome?
2. In-service activities within the school—making use of community resources, inaugurating a revision of the curriculum, assigning responsibilities for committee work and extra-curricular activities.

It is pointed out that the principal must give positive guidance and direction to in-

¹ *Report from the Seminar on the Slow Learner in the Senior High and Vocational-Technical Schools*, (Philadelphia: Curriculum Office, Philadelphia Public Schools, 1955), p. 4.

² Paul W. Harnly, "In-Service Growth Can Be Secured," *The Bulletin of National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, Vol. 30, (May, 1946), p. 91.

service development, but not domination. Teachers should think and plan together and know that their decisions will be respected and followed. A passive attitude of the principal will usually discourage the program.

This study found that when teachers try to find richer opportunities for children, desirable changes are brought about. The teachers need to become concerned about personal qualities, abilities, and attitudes which should be developed in pupils.

C. Incentives Used in Motivating Professional Growth of Teachers

This study³ gathered data concerning the worth and merit of many of the principles of organizing for in-service education. This information is valuable to principals or committees of teachers who are beginning an in-service education program or who have had experience in this work. The various procedures outlined in this report are, in the main, applicable to a program of in-service education for teachers to assist them in educating non-academic pupils.

The four chapter headings of this study presented below give an idea of the scope of this investigation.

- I. An Overview of In-Service Training.
- II. Motivating Teachers to Grow.
- III. Suggestions for Further Improvement.
- IV. A Summary of the Research Study.

FINDINGS OF THIS STUDY

While there are many different methods of approaching the problem of in-service education, the present study limited items to four broad categories as follows:

1. Organize faculty meetings to present various aspects of the problem of meeting individual differences.
2. Have supervisors assist teachers to learn better techniques of providing for individual differences.
3. Organize workshops in providing for and recognizing individual differences.

4. Encourage faculty committees to study aspects of providing for individual differences.

It is interesting to note that the authorities rated all of the items in this section on in-service education as much more valuable for assisting teachers in educating nonacademic pupils than did either of the two groups of responding schools. Some of this difference in ratings might be explained by terming those of the authorities theoretical while calling the schools' ratings more practical. However, one might also assert that part of the difference is due to the lack of effective planning and the failure to use new techniques in faculty meetings. Too often these meetings are something to be endured rather than to be stimulating, inspiring situations for learning.

A. Organize Faculty Meetings to Present Various Aspects of the Problem of Meeting Individual Differences

As stated above, the authorities considered all of the procedures in this section very valuable for helping teachers educate nonacademic pupils. The selected schools and the recommended schools rated these items of less value and reported that these methods were used with nonacademic pupils approximately the same as with other students. Part of this inconsistency might be explained by pointing out that many of the procedures are those which are seldom used in faculty meetings.

Since those persons who are classed as authorities in educating nonacademic pupils rated all of the procedures as very valuable, these methods are presented below in the order of their ratings:

1. Utilize the faculty as a whole in a discussion of methods of providing for individual differences.
2. Have different departments in the high school present their methods for providing for individual differences.
3. Use short plays or other role-playing techniques to show how and how not to provide for individual differences.
4. Present and discuss films on individual differences ("The Dropout," "Individual Differences," etc.).
5. Have the guidance department present details of the cumulative records (scope, availability, etc.).
6. Have panel discussions on the importance of

³ N. Durward Cory, *Incentives Used in Motivating Professional Growth of Teachers*, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1952.

noting and providing for individual differences.

7. Schedule dynamic speakers to present facts relative to individual differences (school nurses, doctors, psychologists, welfare workers, etc.).

Part of the seeming discrepancy between the authorities and the responding schools was explained by one author's statement:

Too often the faculty meeting is nothing but a bitter pill to the ordinary teacher—something to be attended and endured only because the administration so commands.⁴

More thought and planning, more purpose and programing might help to close this gap between theory and practice.

B. Supervisors Assist Teachers to Learn Better Techniques of Providing for Individual Differences

Certain writers have pointed out that the school climate established by the supervisor may encourage or retard professional growth of teachers. In an atmosphere conducive to growth, teachers will feel the desire and need to grow personally and professionally. Five of the procedures in this section were considered important and valuable in assisting teachers. These five items in the order of their value are:

1. Recommend teacher-counselor conferences on problems where a recognition of differences in students' backgrounds may affect the solution.
2. Provide opportunities for visiting schools which have programs of providing for individual differences that are considered as outstanding.
3. Recommend college courses (summer, extension, etc.) which assist in recognition of and provision for individual differences.
4. Provide opportunities for visiting a teacher who is outstanding in providing for individual differences.
5. Recommend books or magazine articles which are pertinent to providing for individual differences.

The following procedure was not considered as valuable as the other five in educating nonacademic pupils:

Provide self-evaluating questionnaires to help teachers understand personality traits and methods which assist in providing for individual differences.

⁴ David Barnes, "How Can Faculty Meetings Be Used to Stimulate Professional Growth?" *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, Vol. 39 (April, 1955), p. 2.

The unavailability of satisfactory questionnaires may account for part of this lower rating although many good ones are becoming available. Another factor in the lower rating may be that self-evaluating questionnaires are not in general use.

C. Organize Workshops in Providing For and Recognizing Individual Differences

The data for this section indicate that workshop procedure was valuable and important in helping teachers understand nonacademic pupils, but that this method was not used very frequently. Part of the reason for this lack of use may be the difficulty in implementing it. However, this technique is becoming one of the foremost methods of in-service education.

D. Encourage Faculty Committees to Study Aspects of Providing for Individual Differences

Much valuable information comes to light and many effective plans are formulated through the sharing of ideas in committees. This technique also gives everyone, whether administrator or teacher, the opportunity to participate in making plans and in carrying them out.

Two procedures were listed under this section and both were considered very valuable techniques for promoting the education of nonacademic pupils. These methods were:

1. Organize a committee on curriculum revision.
2. Use a committee on improving guidance functions.

It should not be assumed that these committees are the only groups which could make valuable contributions. These two committees provide more opportunity to discuss recognizing individual differences and to develop a program to provide for them. The efficacy of any committee depends a great deal upon the local school situation.

E. Special Reports from Recommended Schools

The recommended schools did not discuss provisions for in-service education of

teachers as fully as they had discussed other areas of the study. One reason for lack of discussion is evidenced below in representative remarks, namely, that some educators feel that in-service is not too important.

Important procedures.—A summary of the responses with regard to the procedures which were considered most important is presented below with the percent of the responses.

1. Recommend university courses—28 percent.
2. Organize local faculty committees with consultants—28 percent.
3. Encourage visitation to other teachers and schools—23 percent.
4. Organize faculty meetings—23 percent.
5. Organize workshops—23 percent.
6. Recommend reading in professional publications—18 percent.

Representative remarks.—The following remarks and discussions from the recommended schools apply to the provisions of in-service education which were considered most valuable in helping to acquaint teachers with methods of recognizing and providing for individual differences:

There is danger of too much of this. A teacher's major energy is needed for the classroom job. Actually he should be trained before he takes his job as teacher.

Department meetings; faculty meetings; summer and after-school college courses; visiting schools.

In-service education, we believe, should include workshops; outstanding speakers in the field; organization and planning committees made up of counselors, teachers, and administrators to study curriculum changes; visitations to classrooms of specialists; demonstrations on teaching methods; ample source materials available.

Conference of teachers with representatives of colleges and institutions of higher learning to learn of new techniques and methods of instruction.

I prefer course work at some university because: (1) Removed from the practicalities of coping with kids, one can dream a little and (2) contact with other interested teachers tends to lend support to one's own dreams.

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

Since the study revealed few schools which have made significant progress in educating nonacademic pupils, schools interested in improving their teaching of these pupils must plan a careful program of in-service education for those who will teach them.

An awareness of the problem and a feeling that something of value can be done is a first requisite. Every conscientious teacher is aware of nonacademic pupils in his classes but frequently feels a sense of frustration in working with them. The principal should provide assistance in identifying their characteristics and in defining feasible objectives for them. His sympathetic encouragement of teachers of these pupils is essential. Unless the administration shows an interest, the teachers are likely to become discouraged and ignore the possibilities of helping nonacademic pupils.

In most schools teachers are concerned about doing all they can to provide valuable educative experiences for nonacademic youth. It may be necessary in some schools, however, for the administrator to encourage teachers to study methods and practices in this area. Suggestions for arousing interest have been presented in this chapter.

The necessity of continued professional improvement was strongly emphasized by Douglass and Mills in their statement:

Aware of both the need and the opportunity for continuous education, the conscientious teacher remains a student of the problems on teaching throughout his career. In no other profession is it quite so imperative that he continue his education after he enters upon his professional work as in teaching.⁵

⁵ Harl R. Douglass and Hubert H. Mills, *Teaching in High School* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1948), p. 541.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY

THE INTEREST SHOWN by schools in returning questionnaires and in volunteering comments has indicated the importance of gathering the information presented in this study. In addition to the summarization of the replies received and an effort to interpret their significance, this report has presented the important findings of previous studies in related areas.

The study has revealed that school men are generally aware of the problems presented in educating nonacademic pupils but that few of them have made significant progress in solving these problems. In many cases, actual practice in school differs materially from recommendations made by the authorities.

The experiences of 356 principals of North Central Association schools are reflected in this report. From them it has been possible to list many suggestions for attacking the problems which this study deals with. The comments and suggestions from the recommended schools were very valuable in compiling this report.

Most of the suggestions for teaching the nonacademic pupil apply equally to the teaching of all pupils. The good teacher studies his pupils, learns their abilities and potentialities, and adapts the work to their level of interest and capacity. The good teacher uses variety in teaching methods and brings to the classroom many different materials. The good teacher wants to grow and so invites opportunities to work on committees for the study of new problems so that progress can be made.

While this study recognizes these similarities, it has tried to emphasize those elements of teaching which apply particularly to nonacademic pupils. These are presented in the following paragraphs.

Before nonacademic pupils can be given the right type of high school education, some effort must be made to discover what they need and why they have not achieved effectively. In other words, an

identification procedure for determining their inadequacies must be established. The data from this study indicate that this procedure should be a multiple-factor approach. This many-pronged endeavor should include the use of the cumulative record with non-verbal intelligence test scores, grades, health data, attendance records, and other test scores and inventories; recommendations from counselors; referrals from teachers; and a qualified psychologist's recommendation.

After the nonacademic individuals have been determined, the question arises as to the curriculum for these pupils. The respondents indicated that certain fundamental abilities were essential as well as specific objectives of education for a democracy. The compiled data further denote objectives in the areas of occupational adjustment, social competency, and effective use of leisure time which were considered important and valuable for educating nonacademic youth. "Watering-down" the standard curriculum will not suffice; it is necessary that concrete experiences and practical applications be emphasized in the curriculum for nonacademic pupils. Abstractions and generalizations should be kept to a minimum.

A sympathetic and cooperative administrator is very important for the success of a nonacademic program. The findings of the study disclose many administrative procedures which would contribute to the education of these pupils. Items of equipment for audio-visual presentations, for duplicating materials, and for homemaking and craft classes were considered necessary. Special classes for a school-sponsored work-experience program, for remedial purposes, and in different interest areas were recommended. Ability grouping in required courses, core classes, and smaller classes were also considered valuable. Procedures which were determined to be valuable in providing adequate materials are as follows:

1. Provide reading materials suited to the ages and interests of students.
2. Assist teachers in preparing needed materials.
3. Provide adequate materials for audio-visual presentations.
4. Have needed reference materials available.
5. Provide recreational reading materials at various reading levels.
6. Assist teachers in obtaining usable free materials.
7. Provide a central library of materials to be used in special classes.

The administrators also have the responsibility of providing good teachers for the nonacademic classes. Good teachers were ascertained to be those who:

1. Expressed a preference or willingness for special classes.
2. Had a better-than-average understanding of individual student problems and the ability to undergo frequent frustrations.
3. Were specially trained and competent.
4. Were emotionally stable, mature, and had flexible personalities with a sense of humor, good health, patience, and enthusiasm.

Three procedures for evaluating the work in nonacademic classes were:

1. Holding students to a reasonable standard of accomplishment based on their ability.
2. Promoting students when there is evidence of growth.
3. When determining a grade, measuring progress by the student's ability.

Curricular adaptations and administrative procedures are important, but neither is very effective without competent teachers and adequate methods. Techniques by which teachers can provide for differences in pupils were ascertained from the data in the study. These techniques in the order of their significance are the following:

1. Maintaining an attitude of helpfulness and fairness toward all students regardless of ability.
2. Avoiding a defeatist attitude at all times.
3. Helping each student gain a feeling of belonging.
4. Looking for physical causes behind laziness, lack of persistence, irritability, or passiveness.
5. Ascertaining each student's abilities and arranging situations so that he can succeed.
6. Giving all students an opportunity to gain status among their classmates.
7. Establishing activities which aid in improving mental health (activities to establish a sense of achievement, security, pride in accomplishments, acceptance of limitations, etc.).
8. Encouraging pupils with creative ideas, inter-

ests, and talents to develop them.

9. Using group processes to encourage pupil expression.
10. Using pupil-teacher planning whenever possible.

The data also determined effective adaptations of methods which would enable teachers to teach nonacademic pupils more adequately. The most valuable of these adaptations are:

1. Concentrating on developing comprehension at the pupil's level.
2. Building pupils' experiences around things, processes, and activities that are real, actual, and tangible.
3. Providing as much individual assistance and coaching as possible.
4. Planning many short, well-motivated periods for learning.
5. Introducing only one new point at a time.
6. Using differentiated assignments.

Besides adapting methods for teaching the nonacademic pupil, it is also very important for the teacher to adapt materials. The following methods of adaptation were indicated as valuable:

1. Use materials with an appropriate vocabulary and a limited number of abstractions.
2. Insure concreteness and make experiences firsthand by relying more on demonstration, observation, films, pictures, and excursions than on books and lectures.
3. Make references explicit and use simple reference and source materials.
4. Adjust the content of materials to the pupils' everyday needs.
5. Help develop a vocabulary of words frequently used.
6. Adjust materials to the social-interest level of the class.

Faculty meetings, workshops, faculty committees, and assistance from supervisory personnel were regarded as valuable in-service procedures for assisting teachers in recognizing and providing for individual differences. Some of the techniques for stimulating teacher interest in faculty meetings were these:

1. Utilizing the faculty as a whole in a discussion of methods of providing for individual differences.
2. Having different departments in the high school present their methods of providing for individual differences.
3. Using short plays or other role-playing techniques to show how and how not to provide for individual differences.

4. Presenting and discussing films on individual differences ("The Dropout," "Individual Differences," etc.).
5. Having the guidance department present details of the cumulative records (scope, availability, etc.).
6. Having panel discussions on the importance of noting and providing for individual differences.
7. Scheduling dynamic speakers to present facts relative to individual differences (school nurses, doctors, psychologists, welfare workers, etc.).

Principals, heads of departments, supervisors, and other administrators have many opportunities to encourage teacher study of methods and procedures for providing for individual differences. The supervisory practices which were considered valuable by the respondents are:

1. Recommending teacher-counselor conferences on problems where a recognition of differences in students' backgrounds may affect the solution.
2. Providing opportunities for visiting schools which have programs of providing for individual differences that are considered as outstanding.
3. Recommending college courses (summer, extension, etc.) which assist in recognition of and provision for individual differences.
4. Providing opportunities for visiting a teacher who is outstanding in providing for individual differences.
5. Recommending books or magazine articles which are pertinent to providing for individual differences.

Organizing workshops in recognizing and providing for individual differences was determined to be a valuable technique for assisting teachers in educating non-academic pupils. The respondent deemed faculty committees, particularly on curriculum revision and the improvement of guidance functions, an important means for provoking interest and for assisting in educating nonacademic youth.

It should be emphasized that the conclusions from this study are not offered as rigid mandates, but are suggested as guideposts which should be considered in the light of the individual school situation. Many of the proposed techniques and methods will be most successful in a program established through democratic participation of all of the staff in the school. In general, the wider the participa-

tion, the more successful the program. Democratic cooperation will result in greater understanding, improved support, and a better nonacademic program.

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